ARTICLES

PHENOMENA OF ALTERNATING CURRENTS OF VERY HIGH FREQUENCY*

Electrical journals are getting to be more and more interesting. New facts are observed and new problems spring up daily which command the attention of engineers. In the last few numbers of the English journals, principally in the Electrician there have been several new matters brought up which have attracted more than usual attention. The address of Professor Crookes has revived the interest in his beautiful and skilfully performed experiments, the effect observed on the Ferranti mains has elicited the expressions of opinion of some of the leading English electricians, and Mr. Swinburne has brought out some interesting points in connection with condensers and dynamo excitation.

The writer's own experiences have induced him to venture a few remarks in regard to these and other matters, hoping that they will afford some useful information or suggestion to the reader.

Among his many experiments Professor Crookes shows some performed with tubes devoid of internal electrodes, and from his remarks it must be inferred that the results obtained with these tubes are rather unusual. If this be so, then the writer must regret that Professor Crookes, whose admirable work has been the delight of every investigator, should not have availed himself in his experiments of a properly constructed alternate current machine — namely, one capable of giving, say 10,000 to 20,000 alternations per second. His researches on this difficult but fascinating subject would then have been even more complete. It is true that when using such a machine in connection with an induction coil the distinctive character of the electrodes — which is desirable, if not essential, in many experiments — is lost, in most cases both the electrodes behaving alike; but on the other hand, the advantage is gained that the effects may be exalted at will. When using a rotating switch or commutator the rate of change obtainable in the primary current is limited. When the commutator is more rapidly revolved the primary current diminishes, and if the current be increased, the sparking, which cannot be completely overcome by the condenser, impairs considerably the virtue of the apparatus. No such limitations exist when using an alternate current machine as any desired rate of change may be produced in the primary current. It is thus possible to obtain excessively high electromotive forces in the secondary circuit with a comparatively small primary current; moreover, the perfect regularity in the working of the apparatus may be relied upon.

The writer will incidentally mention that any one who attempts for the first time to construct such a machine will have a tale of woe to tell. He will first start out, as a matter of course, by making an armature with the required number of polar projections. He will then get the satisfaction of having produced an apparatus which is fit to accompany a thoroughly Wagnerian opera. It may besides possess the virtue of converting mechanical energy into heat in a nearly perfect manner. If there is a reversal in the polarity

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of the projections, he will get heat out of the machine; if there is no reversal, the heating will be less, but the output will be next to nothing. He will then adandon the iron in the armature, and he will get from the Scylla to the Charybdis. He will look for one difficulty and will find another, but, after a few trials, he may get nearly what he wanted.

Among the many experiments which may be performed with such a machine, of not the least interest are those performed with a high-tension induction coil. The character of the discharge is completely changed. The arc is established at much greater distances, and it is so easily affected by the slightest current of air that it often wriggles around in the most singular manner. It usually emits the rhythmical sound peculiar to the alternate current arcs, but the curious point is that the sound may be heard with a number of alternations far above ten thousand per second, which by many is considered to be about the limit of audition. In many respects the coil behaves like a static machine. Points impair considerably the sparking interval, electricity escaping from them freely, and from a wire attached to one of the terminals streams of light issue, as though it were connected to a pole of a powerful Toepler machine. All these phenomena are, of course, mostly due to the enormous differences of potential obtained. As a consequence of the self-induction of the coil and the high frequency, the current is minute while there is a corresponding rise of pressure. A current impulse of some strength started in such a coil should persist to flow no less than four ten-thousandths of a second. As this time is greater than half the period, it occurs that an opposing electromotive force begins to act while the current is still flowing. As a consequence, the pressure rises as in a tube filled with liquid and vibrated rapidly around its axis. The current is so small that, in the opinion and involuntary experience of the writer, the discharge of even a very large coil cannot produce seriously injurious effects, whereas, if the same coil were operated with a current of lower frequency, though the electromotive force would be much smaller, the discharge would be most certainly injurious. This result, however, is due in part to the high frequency. The writer's experiences tend to show that the higher the frequency the greater the amount of electrical energy which may be passed through the body without serious discomfort; whence it seems certain that human tissues act as condensers.

One is not quite prepared for the behavior of the coil when connected to a Leyden jar. One, of course, anticipates that since the frequency is high the capacity of the jar should be small. He therefore takes a very small jar, about the size of a small wine glass, but he finds that even with this jar the coil is practically short-circuited. He then reduces the capacity until he comes to about the capacity of two spheres, say, ten centimetres in diameter and two to four centimetres apart. The discharge then assumes the form of a serrated band exactly like a succession of sparks viewed in a rapidly revolving mirror; the serrations, of course, corresponding to the condenser discharges. In this case one may observe a queer phenomenon. The discharge starts at the nearest points, works gradually up, breaks somewhere near the top of the spheres, begins again at the bottom, and so on. This goes on so fast that several serrated bands are seen at once. One may be puzzled for a few minutes, but the explanation is simple enough. The discharge begins at the nearest points, the air is heated and carries the arc upward until it breaks, when it is re-established at the nearest points, etc. Since the current passes easily through a condenser of even small capacity, it will be found quite natural that connecting only one terminal to a body of the same size, no matter how well insulated, impairs considerably the striking distance of the arc.

Experiments with Geissler tubes are of special interest. An exhausted tube, devoid of electrodes of any kind, will light up at some distance from the coil. If a tube from a vacuum pump is near the coil the whole of the pump is brilliantly lighted. An incandescent lamp approached to the coil lights up and gets perceptibly hot. If a lamp

have the terminals connected to one of the binding posts of the coil and the hand is approached to the bulb, a very curious and rather unpleasant discharge from the glass to the hand takes place, and the filament may become incandescent. The discharge resembles to some extent the stream issuing from the plates of a powerful Toepler machine, but is of incomparably greater quantity. The lamp in this case acts as a condenser, the rarefied gas being one coating, the operator's hand the other. By taking the globe of a lamp in the hand, and by bringing the metallic terminals near to or in contact with a conductor connected to the coil, the carbon is brought to bright incandescence and the glass is rapidly heated. With a 100-volt 10 c.p. lamp one may without great discomfort stand as much current as will bring the lamp to a considerable brilliancy; but it can be held in the hand only for a few minutes, as the glass is heated in an incredibly short time. When a tube is lighted by bringing it near to the coil it may be made to go out by interposing a metal plate on the hand between the coil and tube; but if the metal plate be fastened to a glass rod or otherwise insulated, the tube may remain lighted if the plate be interposed, or may even increase in luminosity. The effect depends on the position of the plate and tube relatively to the coil, and may be always easily foretold by *assuming* that conduction takes place from one terminal of the coil to the other. According to the position of the plate, it may either divert from or direct the current to the tube.

In another line of work the writer has in frequent experiments maintained incandescent lamps of 50 or 100 volts burning at any desired candle power with both the terminals of each lamp connected to a stout copper wire of no more than a few feet in length. These experiments seem interesting enough, but they are not more so than the queer experiment of Faraday, which has been revived and made much of by recent investigators, and in which a discharge is made to jump between two points of a bent copper wire. An experiment may be cited here which may seem equally interesting. If a Geissler tube, the terminals of which are joined by a copper wire, be approached to the coil, certainly no one would be prepared to see the tube light up. Curiously enough, it does light up, and, what is more, the wire does not seem to make much difference. Now one is apt to think in the first moment that the impedance of the wire might have something to do with the phenomenon. But this is of course immediately rejected, as for this an enormous frequency would be required. This result, however, seems puzzling only at first; for upon reflection it is quite clear that the wire can make but little difference. It may be explained in more than one way, but it agrees perhaps best with observation to assume that conduction takes place from the terminals of the coil through the space. On this assumption, if the tube with the wire be held in any position, the wire can divert little more than the current which passes through the space occupied by the wire and the metallic terminals of the tube; through the adjacent space the current passes practically undisturbed. For this reason, if the tube be held in any position at right angles to the line joining the binding posts of the coil, the wire makes hardly any difference, but in a position more or less parallel with that line it impairs to a certain extent the brilliancy of the tube and its facility to light up. Numerous other phenomena may be explained on the same assumption. For instance, if the ends of the tube be provided with washers of sufficient size and held in the line joining the terminals of the coil, it will not light up, and then nearly the whole of the current, which would otherwise pass uniformly through the space between the washers, is diverted through the wire. But if the tube be inclined sufficiently to that line, it will light up in spite of the washers. Also, if a metal plate be fastened upon a glass rod and held at right angles to the line joining the binding posts, and nearer to one of them, a tube held more or less parallel with the line will light up instantly when one of the terminals touches the plate, and will go out when separated from the plate. The greater the surface of the plate, up to a certain limit, the easier the tube will light up. When

a tube is placed at right angles to the straight line joining the binding posts, and then rotated, its luminosity steadily increases until it is parallel with that line. The writer must state, however, that he does not favor the idea of a leakage or current through the space any more than as a suitable explanation, for he is convinced that all these experiments could not be performed with a static machine yielding a constant difference of potential, and that condenser action is largely concerned in these phenomena.

It is well to take certain precautions when operating a Ruhmkorff coil with very rapidly alternating currents. The primary current should not be turned on too long, else the core may get so hot as to melt the guta-percha or paraffin, or otherwise injure the insulation, and this may occur in a surprisingly short time, considering the current's strength. The primary current being turned on, the fine wire terminals may be joined without great risk, the impedance being so great that it is difficult to force enough current through the fine wire so as to injure it, and in fact the coil may be on the whole much safer when the terminals of the fine wire are connected than when they are insulated; but special care should be taken when the terminals are connected to the coatings of a Leyden jar, for with anywhere near the critical capacity, which just counteracts the self-induction at the existing frequency, the coil might meet the fate of St. Polycarpus. If an expensive vacuum pump is lighted up by being near to the coil or touched with a wire connected to one of the terminals, the current should be left on no more than a few moments, else the glass will be cracked by the heating of the rarefied gas in one of the narrow passages — in the writer's own experience *quod erat demonstrandum.*[1]

There are a good many other points of interest which may be observed in connection with such a machine. Experiments with the telephone, a conductor in a strong field or with a condenser or arc, seem to afford certain proof that sounds far above the usual accepted limit of hearing would be perceived. A telephone will emit notes of twelve to thirteen thousand vibrations per second; then the inability of the core to follow such rapid alternations begins to tell. If, however, the magnet and core be replaced by a condenser and the terminals connected to the high-tension secondary of a transformer, higher notes may still be heard. If the current be sent around a finely laminated core and a small piece of thin sheet iron be held gently against the core, a sound may be still heard with thirteen to fourteen thousand alternations per second, provided the current is sufficiently strong. A small coil, however, tightly packed between the poles of a powerful magnet, will emit a sound with the above number of alternations, and arcs may be audible with a still higher frequency. The limit of audition is variously estimated. In Sir William Thomson's writings it is stated somewhere that ten thousand per second, or nearly so, is the limit. Other, but less reliable, sources give it as high as twenty-four thousand per second. The above experiments have convinced the writer that notes of an incomparably higher number of vibrations per second would be perceived provided they could be produced with sufficient power. There is no reason why it should not be so. The condensations and rarefactions of the air would necessarily set the diaphragm in a corresponding vibration and some sensation would be produced, whatever — within certain limits — the velocity of transmission to their nerve centres, though it is probable that for want of exercise the ear would not be able to distinguish any such high note. With the eye it is different; if the sense of vision is based upon some resonance effect, as many believe, no amount of increase in the intensity of the ethereal vibration could extend our range of vision on either side of the visible spectrum.

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[1]) It is thought necessary to remark that,although the induction coil may give quite a good result when operated with such rapidly alternating currents, yet its construction, quite irrespective of the iron core, makes it very unfit for such high frequencies, and to obtain the best results the construction should be greatly modified.

The limit of audition of an arc depends on its size. The greater the surface by a given heating effect in the arc, the higher the limit of audition. The highest notes are emitted by the high-tension discharges of an induction coil in which the arc is, so to speak, all surface. If R be the resistance of an arc, and C the current, and the linear dimensions be n times increased, then the resistance is $\frac{R}{n}$, and with the same current density the current would be n^2C; hence the heating effect is n^3 times greater, while the surface is only n^2 times as great. For this reason very large arcs would not emit any rhythmical sound even with a very low frequency. It must be observed, however, that the sound emitted depends to some extent also on the composition of the carbon. If the carbon contain highly refractory material, this, when heated, tends to maintain the temperature of the arc uniform and the sound is lessened; for this reason it would seem that an alternating arc requires such carbons.

With currents of such high frequencies it is possible to obtain noiseless arcs, but the regulation of the lamp is rendered extremely difficult on account of the excessively small attractions or repulsions between conductors conveying these currents.

An interesting feature of the arc produced by these rapidly alternating currents is its persistency. There are two causes for it, one of which is always present, the other sometimes only. One is due to the character of the current and the other to a property of the machine. The first cause is the more important one, and is due directly to the rapidity of the alternations. When an arc is formed by a periodically undulating current, there is a corresponding undulation in the temperature of the gaseous column, and, therefore, a corresponding undulation in the resistance of the arc. But the resistance of the arc varies enormously with the temperature of the gaseous column, being practically infinite when the gas between the electrodes is cold. The persistence of the arc, therefore, depends on the inability of the column to cool. It is for this reason impossible to maintain an arc with the current alternating only a few times a second. On the other hand, with a practically continuous current, the arc is easily maintained, the column being constantly kept at a high temperature and low resistance. The higher the frequency the smaller the time interval during which the arc may cool and increase considerably in resistance. With a frequency of 10,000 per second or more in an arc of equal size excessively small variations of temperature are superimposed upon a steady temperature, like ripples on the surface of a deep sea. The heating effect is practically continuous and the arc behaves like one produced by a continuous current, with the exception, however, that it may not be quite as easily started, and that the electrodes are equally consumed; though the writer has observed some irregularities in this respect.

The second cause alluded to, which possibly may not be present, is due to the tendency of a machine of such high frequency to maintain a practically constant current. When the arc is lengthened, the electromotive force rises in proportion and the arc appears to be more persistent.

Such a machine is eminently adapted to maintain a constant current, but it is very unfit for a constant potential. As a matter of fact, in certain types of such machines a nearly constant current is an almost unavoidable result. As the number of poles or polar projections is greatly increased, the clearance becomes of great importance. One has really to do with a great number of very small machines. Then there is the impedance in the armature, enormously augmented by the high frequency. Then, again, the magnetic leakage is facilitated. If there are three or four hundred alternate poles, the leakage is so great that it is virtually the same as connecting, in a two-pole machine, the poles by a piece of iron. This disadvantage, it is true, may be obviated more or less by using a field throughout of the same polarity, but then one encounters difficulties of a different nature. All these things tend to maintain a constant current in the armature circuit.

In this connection it is interesting to notice that even to-day engineers are astonished at the performance of a constant current machine, just as, some years ago, they used to consider it an extraordinary performance if a machine was capable of maintaining a constant potential difference between the terminals. Yet one result is just as easily secured as the other. It must only be remembered that in an inductive apparatus of any kind, if constant potential is required, the inductive relation between the primary or exciting and secondary or armature circuit must be the closest possible; whereas, in an apparatus for constant current just the opposite is required. Furthermore, the opposition to the current's flow in the induced circuit must be as small as possible in the former and as great as possible in the latter case. But opposition to a current's flow may be caused in more than one way. It may be caused by ohmic resistance of self-induction. One may make the induced circuit of a dynamo machine or transformer of such high resistance that when operating devices of considerably smaller resistance within very wide limits a nearly constant current is maintained. But such high resistance involves a great loss in power, hence it is not practicable. Not so self-induction. Self-induction does not necessarily mean loss of power. The moral is, use self-induction instead of resistance. There is, however, a circumstance which favors the adoption of this plan, and this is, that a very high self-induction may be obtained cheaply by surrounding a comparatively small length of wire more or less completely with iron, and, furthermore, the effect may be exalted at will by causing a rapid undulation of the current. To sum up, the requirements for constant current are: Weak magnetic connection between the induced and inducing circuits, greatest possible self-induction with the least resistance, greatest practicable rate of change of the current. Constant potential, on the other hand, requires: Closest magnetic connection between the circuits, steady induced current, and, if possible, no reaction. If the latter conditions could be fully satisfied in a constant potential machine, its output would surpass many times that of a machine primarily designed to give constant current. Unfortunately, the type of machine in which these conditions may be satisfied is of little practical value, owing to the small electromotive force obtainable and the difficulties in taking off the current.

With their keen inventor's instinct, the now successful arc-light men have early recognized the desiderata of a constant current machine. Their arc light machines have weak fields, large armatures, with a great length of copper wire and few commutator segments to produce great variations in the current's strength and to bring self-induction into play. Such machines may maintain within considerable limits of variation in the resistance of the circuit a practically constant current. Their output is of course correspondingly diminished, and, perhaps with the object in view not to cut down the output too much, a simple device compensating exceptional variations is employed. The undulation of the current is almost essential to the commercial success of an arc-light system. It introduces in the circuit a steadying element taking the place of a large ohmic resistance, without involving a great loss in power, and, what is more important, it allows the use of simple clutch lamps, which with a current of a certain number of impulses per second, best suitable for each particular lamp, will, if properly attended to, regulate even better than the finest clock-work lamps. This discovery has been made by the writer — several years too late.

It has been asserted by competent English electricians that in a constant-current machine or transformer the regulation is effected by varying the phase of the secondary current. That this view is erroneous may be easily proved by using, instead of lamps, devices each possessing self-induction and capacity or self-induction and resistance — that is, retarding and accelerating components — in such proportions as to not affect materially the phase of the secondary current. Any number of such devices may be inserted or cut out, still it will be found that the regulation occurs, a constant current being maintained, while the electromotive force is varied with the number of the devices.

The change of phase of the secondary current is simply a result following from the changes in resistance, and, though secondary reaction is always of more or less importance, yet the real cause of the regulation lies in the existence of the conditions above enumerated. It should be stated, however, that in the case of a machine the above remarks are to be restricted to the cases in which the machine is independently excited. If the excitation be effected by commutating the armature current, then the fixed position of the brushes makes any shifting of the neutral line of the utmost importance, and it may not be thought immodest of the writer to mention that, as far as records go, he seems to have been the first who has successfully regulated machines by providing a bridge connection between a point of the external circuit and the commutator by means of a third brush. The armature and field being properly proportioned and the brushes placed in their determined positions, a constant current or constant potential resulted from the shifting of the diameter of commutation by the varying loads.

In connection with machines of such high frequencies, the condenser affords an especially interesting study. It is easy to raise the electromotive force of such a machine to four or five times the value by simply connecting the condenser to the circuit, and the writer has continually used the condenser for the purposes of regulation, as suggested by Blakesley in his book on alternate currents, in which he has treated the most frequently occurring condenser problems with exquisite simplicity and clearness. The high frequency allows the use of small capacities and renders investigation easy. But, although in most of the experiments the result may be foretold, some phenomena observed seem at first curious. One experiment performed three or four months ago with such a machine and a condenser may serve as an illustration. A machine was used giving about 20,000 alternations per second. Two bare wires about twenty feet long and two millimetres in diameter, in close proximity to each other, were connected to the terminals of the machine at the one end, and to a condenser at the other. A small transformer without an iron core, of course, was used to bring the reading within range of a Cardew voltmeter by connecting the voltmeter to the secondary. On the terminals of the condenser the electromotive force was about 120 volts, and from there inch by inch it gradually fell until at the terminals of the machine it was about 65 volts. It was virtually as though the condenser were a generator, and the line and armature circuit simply a resistance connected to it. The writer looked for a case of resonance, but he was unable to augment the effect by varying the capacity very carefully and gradually or by changing the speed of the machine. A case of pure resonance he was unable to obtain. When a condenser was connected to the terminals of the machine — the self-induction of the armature being first determined in the maximum and minimum position and the mean value taken — the capacity which gave the highest electromotive force corresponded most nearly to that which just counteracted the self-induction with the existing frequency. If the capacity was increased or diminished, the electromotive force fell as expected.

With frequencies as high as the above mentioned, the condenser effects are of enormous importance. The condenser becomes a highly efficient apparatus capable of transferring considerable energy.

The writer has thought machines of high frequencies may find use at least in cases when transmission at great distances is not contemplated. The increase of the resistance may be reduced in the conductors and exalted in the devices when heating effects are wanted, transformers may be made of higher efficiency and greater outputs and valuable results may be secured by means of condensers. In using machines of high frequency the writer has been able to observe condenser effects which would have otherwise escaped his notice. He has been very much interested in the phenomenon observed on the Ferranti main which has been so much spoken of. Opinions have been expressed by competent electricians, but up to the present all still seems to be conjecture. Undoubtedly in the views expressed the truth must be contained,

but as the opinions differ some must be erroneous. Upon seeing the diagram of M. Ferranti in the Electrician of Dec. 19 the writer has formed his opinion of the effect. In the absence of all the necessary data he must content himself to express in words the process which, in his opinion, must undoubtedly occur. The condenser brings about two effects: (1) It changes the phases of the currents in the branches; (2) it changes the strength of the currents. As regards the change in phase, the effect of the condenser is to accelerate the current in the secondary at Deptford and to retard it in the primary at London. The former has the effect diminishing the self-induction in the Deptford primary, and this means lower electromotive force on the dynamo. The retardation of the primary at London, as far as merely the phase is concerned, has little or no effect since the phase of the current in the secondary in London is not arbitrarily kept.

Now, the second effect of the condenser is to increase the current in both the branches. It is immaterial whether there is equality between the currents or not; but it is necessary to point out, in order to see the importance of the Deptford step-up transformer, that an increase of the current in both the branches produces opposite effects. At Deptford it means further lowering of the electromotive force at the primary, and at London it means increase of the electromotive force at the secondary. Therefore, all the things co-act to bring about the phenomenon observed. Such actions, at least, have been formed to take place under similar conditions. When the dynamo is connected directly to the main, one can see that no such action can happen.

The writer has been particularly interested in the suggestions and views expressed by Mr. Swinburne. Mr. Swinburne has frequently honored him by disagreeing with his views. Three years ago, when the writer, against the prevailing opinion of engineers, advanced an open circuit transformer, Mr. Swinburne was the first to condemn it by stating in the Electrician: "The (Tesla) transformer must be inefficient; it has magnetic poles revolving, and has thus an open magnetic circuit". Two years later Mr. Swinburne becomes the champion of the open circuit transformer, and offers to convert him. But, tempora mutantur, et nos mutamur in illis.

The writer cannot believe in the armature reaction theory as expressed in Industries, though undoubtedly there is some truth in it. Mr. Swinburne's interpretation, however, is so broad that it may mean anything.

Mr. Swinburne seems to have been the first who has called attention to the heating of the condensers. The astonishment expressed at that by the ablest electrician is a striking illustration of the desirability to execute experiments on a large scale. To the scientific investigator, who deals with the minutest quantities, who observes the faintest effects, far more credit is due than to one who experiments with apparatus on an industrial scale; and indeed history of science has recorded examples of marvelous skill, patience and keenness of observation. But however great the skill, and however keen the observer's perception, it can only be of advantage to magnify an effect and thus facilitate its study. Had Faraday carried out but one of his experiments on dynamic induction on a large scale it would have resulted in an incalculable benefit.

In the opinion of the writer, the heating of the condensers is due to three distinct causes: first, leakage or conduction; second, imperfect elasticity in the dielectric, and, third, surging of the charges in the conductor.

In many experiments he has been confronted with the problem of transferring the greatest possible amount of energy across a dielectric. For instance, he has made incandescent lamps the ends of the filaments being completely sealed in glass, but attached to interior condenser coatings so that all the energy required had to be transferred across the glass with a condenser surface of no more than a few centimetres square. Such lamps would be a practical success with sufficiently high frequencies. With alternations as high as 15,000 per second it was easy to bring the filaments to incandescence. Witb

lower frequencies this could also be effected, but the potential difference had, of course, to be increased. The writer has then found that the glass gets, after a while, perforated and the vacuum is impaired. The higher the frequency the longer the lamp can withstand. Such a deterioration of the dielectric always takes place when the amount of energy transferred across a dielectric of definite dimensions and by a given frequency is too great. Glass withstands best, but even glass is deteriorated. In this case the potential difference on the plates is of course too great and losses by conduction and imperfect elasticity result. If it is desirable to produce condensers capable to stand differences of potential, then the only dielectric which will involve no losses is a gas under pressure. The writer has worked with air under enormous pressures, but there are a great many practical difficulties in that direction. He thinks that in order to make the condensers of considerable practical utility, higher frequencies should be used: though such a plan has besides others the great disadvantage that the system would become very unfit for the operation of motors.

If the writer does not err Mr. Swinburne has suggested a way of exciting an alternator by means of a condenser. For a number of years past the writer has carried on experiments with the object in view of producing a practical self-exciting alternator. He has in a variety of ways succeeded in producing some excitation of the magnets by means of alternating currents, which were not commutated by mechanical devices. Nevertheless, his experiments have revealed a fact which stands as solid as the rock of Gibraltar. No practical excitation can be obtained with a single periodically varying and not commutated current. The reason is that the changes in the strength of the exciting current produce corresponding changes in the field strength, with the result of inducing currents in the armature; and these currents interfere with these produced by the motion of the armature through the field, the former being a quarter phase in advance of the latter. If the field be laminated, no excitation can be produced; if it be not laminated, some excitation is produced, but the magnets are heated. By combining two exciting currents — displaced by a quarter phase, excitation may be produced in both cases, and if the magnet be not laminated the heating effect is comparatively small, as a uniformity in the field strength is maintained, and, were it possible to produce a perfectly uniform field, excitation on this plan would give quite practical results. If such results are to be secured by the use of a condenser, as suggested by Mr. Swinburne, it is necessary to combine two circuits separated by a quarter phase; that is to say, the armature coils must be wound in two sets and connected to one or two independent condensers. The writer has done some work in that direction, but must defer the description of the devices for some future time.

AN ELECTROLYTIC CLOCK*

If a delicately and pivoted and well-balanced metal disc or cylinder be placed in a proper plating solution midway between the anode and cathode, one half of the disc becomes electro positive and the other half electro negative. Owing to this fact metal is deposited on one, and taken off from the other half, and the disc is caused to rotate under the action of gravity. As the amount of metal deposited and taken off is proportionate to the current strength, the speed of rotation, if it be small, is proportionate to the current.

The first device of this kind was operated by me early in 1888, in the endeavor to construct an electric meter. Upon learning, however, that I had been anticipated by others, as far as the principle is concerned, I devised the apparatus illustrated in the accompanying engraving. Here F is a rectangular frame of hard rubber which is fastened upon a wooden base. This frame is about $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick, 6 inches long and 5 inches high. On both of its upright sides are fastened thick metal plates which serve as the electrodes. These plates are held firmly against the rubber frame by the binding posts T T and T_1 T_1. On the lateral sides of the frame are fastened the brass plates B and B_1, respectively, of the same shape as the rubber frame F. These brass plates serve to keep in place two plates of polished glass, and the vessel is hermetically sealed by placing a soft rubber washer under and above each of the glass plates. In this manner the plates may be screwed on tight without fear of breaking them.

The plating solution, which in this case is a concentrated solution of sulphate of copper, is poured in through an opening on the top of the rubber frame, which is closed by a plug R.

In the centre of the vessel is placed a light and delicately balanced copper disc D, the axis of which is supported by a capillary glass tube which is fixed to one of the glass plates by means of sealing wax, or other material not attacked by the liquid. To diminish the friction as much as possible, the capillary tube which serves as a bearing contains a drop of oil. The centre of disc should be equi-distant from both the electrodes. To one side of the axis of the disc is fastened a very light indicator or pointer consisting preferably of a thin glass thread. The glass plate next to this pointer has a circle with the usual hour divisions engraved upon it, as on a clock dial. This circle may be movable so that it can be put in any position relatively to the pointer. If the dial is not movable then a thin wire of annealed iron may be used as on a pointer. The wire should then be so placed that it is exactly in the centre of the solution. By means of a horse-shoe magnet the disc may then be rotated and set in proper position.

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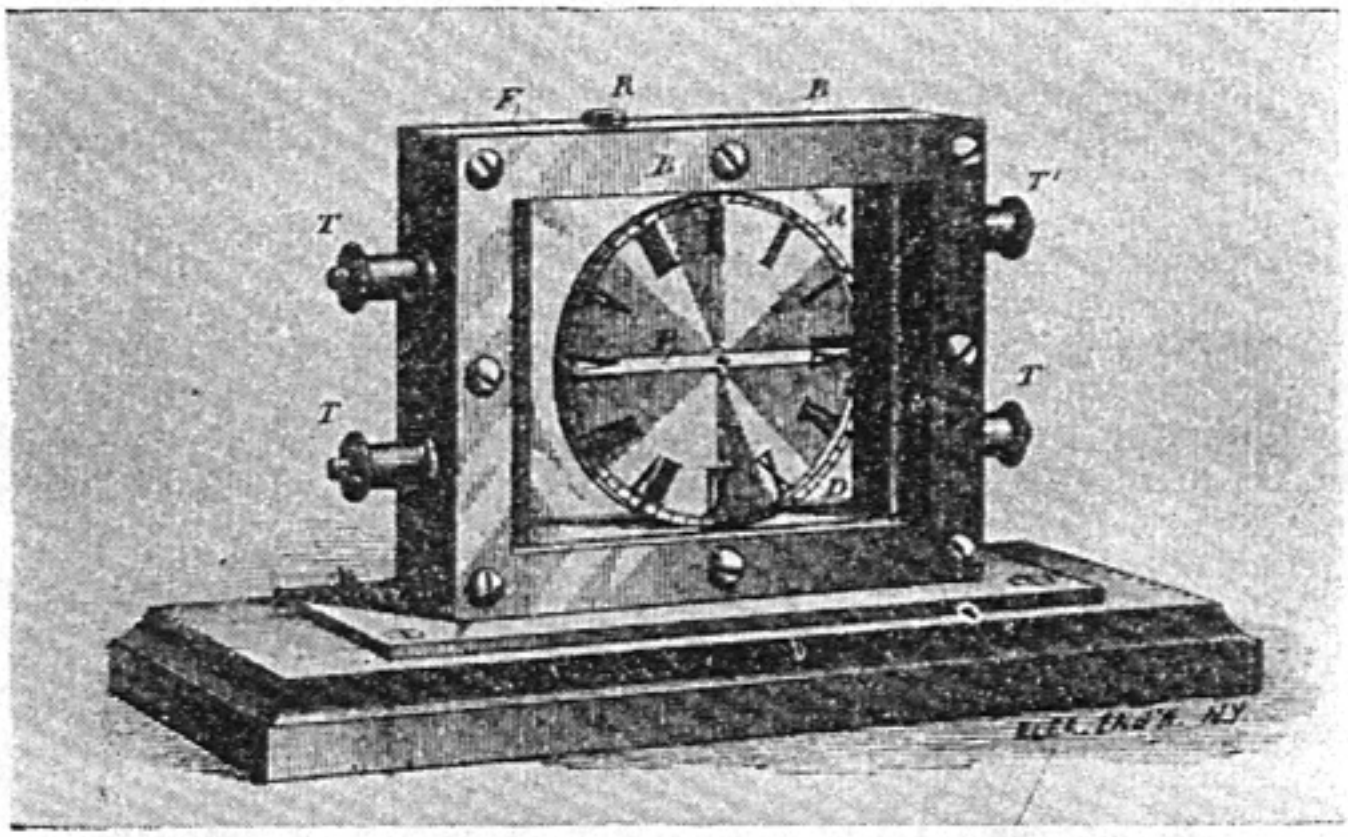
* The Electrical Engineer, May 6, 1891.

The copper solution being carefully poured in, and the plug R replaced, the terminals of a constant current battery are connected to the binding-posts T T1, and from time to time the rotation of the disc is observed. A shunt is connected to the other two binding-posts T T1, and by varying the resistance of this shunt, or other disc, the speed of rotation is regulated until it is made to correspond to the division of the dial; that is, until, for instance, one turn is made in 12 hours.



Obviously this instrument was not devised for a practical purpose. Neither will it be quite exact in its indications. There are certain errors, unavoidable from the principle; for instance, the friction, which cannot be completely overcome. But the device is interesting as a means of indicating time in a novel manner. It will, however, be found that by a careful construction, constant current, and a temperature compensator, it may be made to rotate with almost perfect uniformity. The current density should, of course, be very small to secure the best results, and the disc of about 3 inches diameter should turn once in 6 hours. It is probable that with a silver solution and a silver plate better results would be obtained.

It is very interesting to note the appearance of the solution and disc in such a narrow transparent vessel. The solution appears a clear blue, one side of the disc seems to be silver white in a certain position, and the other half is dark like tarnished silver. There is no line of demarcation, but the shades melt beautifully together.

ALTERNATE CURRENT ELECTROSTATIC INDUCTION APPARATUS*

About a year and a half ago while engaged in the study of alternate currents of short period, it occurred to me that such currents could be obtained by rotating charged surfaces in close proximity to conductors. Accordingly I devised various forms of experimental apparatus of which two are illustrated in the accompanying engravings.

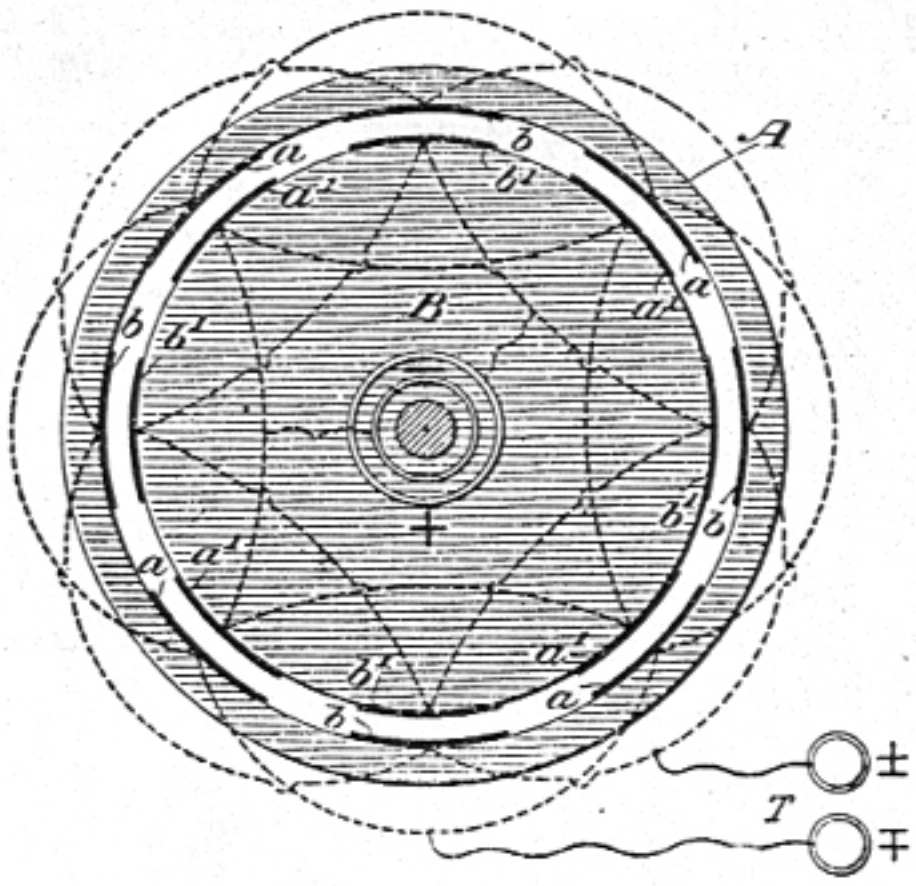


Fig. 1.

In the apparatus shown in Fig. 1, A is a ring of dry shellacked hard wood provided on its inside with two sets of tin-foil coatings, *a* and *b*, all the *a* coatings and all the *b* coatings being connected together, respectively, but independent from each other. These two sets of coatings are connected to two terminals, T. For the sake of clearness only a few coatings are shown. Inside of the ring A, and in close proximity to it there is arranged to rotate a cylinder B, likewise of dry, shellacked hard wood, and provided with two similar sets of coatings, a^1 and b^1, all the coatings a^1 being connected to one ring and all the others, b^1, to another marked + and —. These two sets, a^1 and b^1 are charged to a high potential by a Holtz or Wimshurst machine, and may be connected to a jar of some capacity. The inside of ring A is coated with mica in order to increase the induction and also to allow higher potentials to be used.

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* The Electrical Engineer, N.Y., May 6, 1891

When the cylinder B with the charged coatings is rotated, a circuit connected to the terminals T is traversed by alternating currents. Another form of apparatus is illustrated in Fig. 2. In this apparatus the two sets of tin-foil coatings are glued on a plate of ebonite, and a similar plate which is rotated, and the coatings of which are charged as in Fig. 1, is provided.

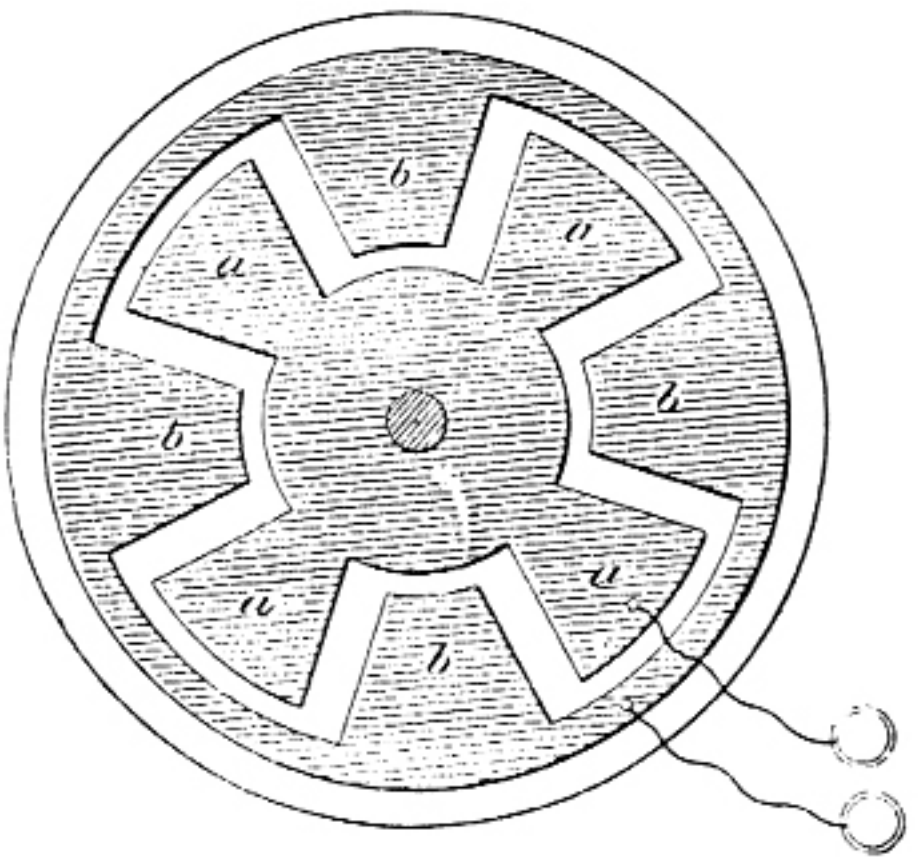

Fig. 2.

The output of such an apparatus is very small, but some of the effects peculiar to alternating currents of short periods may be observed. The effects, however, cannot be compared with those obtainable with an induction coil which is operated by an alternate current machine of high frequency, some of which were described by me a short while ago.

ELECTRIC DISCHARGE IN VACUUM TUBES*

In *The Electrical Engineer* of June 10 I have noted the description of some experiments of Prof. J. J. Thomson, on the "Electric Discharge in Vacuum Tubes," and in your issue of June 24 Prof. Elihu Thomson describes an experiment of the same kind. The fundamental idea in these experiments is to set up an electromotive force in a vacuum tube — preferably devoid of any electrodes — by means of electromagnetic induction, and to excite the tube in this manner.

As I view the subject I should think that to any experimenter who had carefully studied the problem confronting us and who attempted to find a solution of it, this idea must present itself as naturally as, for instance, the idea of replacing the tinfoil coatings of a Leyden jar by rarefied gas and exciting luminosity in the condenser thus obtained by repeatedly charging and discharging it. The idea being obvious, whatever merit there is in this line of investigation must depend upon the completeness of the study of the subject and the correctness of the observations. The following lines are not penned with any desire on my part to put myself on record as one who has performed similar experiments, but with a desire to assist other experimenters by pointing out certain peculiarities of the phenomena observed, which, to all appearances, have not been noted by Prof. J. J. Thomson, who, however, seems to have gone about systematically in his investigations, and who has been the first to make his results known. These peculiarities noted by me would seem to be at variance with the views of Prof. J. J. Thomson, and present the phenomena in a different light.

My investigations in this line occupied me principally during the winter and spring of the past year. During this time many different experiments were performed, and in my exchanges of ideas on this subject with Mr. Alfred S. Brown, of the Western Union Telegraph Company, various different dispositions were suggested which were carried out by me in practice. Fig. 1 may serve as an example of one of the many forms of apparatus used. This consisted of a large glass tube sealed at one end and projecting into an ordinary incandescent lamp bulb. The primary, usually consisting of a few turns of thick, well-insulated copper sheet was inserted within the tube, the inside space of the bulb furnishing the secondary. This form of apparatus was arrived at after some experimenting, and was used principally with the view of enabling me to place a polished reflecting surface on the inside of the tube, and for this purpose the last turn of the primary was covered with a thin silver sheet. In all forms of apparatus used there was no special difficulty in exciting a luminous circle or cylinder in proximity to the primary.

As to the number of turns, I cannot quite understand why Prof. J. J. Thomson should think that a few turns were "quite sufficient", but lest I should impute to him an opinion he may not have, I will add that I have gained this impression from the

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* The Electrical Engineer. N.Y., July 1, 1891

reading of the published abstracts of his lecture. Clearly, the number of turns which gives the best result in any case, is dependent on the dimensions of the apparatus, and, were it not for various considerations, one turn would always give the best result.

I have found that it is preferable to use in these experiments an alternate current machine giving a moderate number of alternations per second to excite the induction coil for charging the Leyden jar which discharges through the primary — shown diagrammatically in Fig. 2, — as in such case, before the disruptive discharge takes place, the tube or bulb is slightly excited and the formation of the luminous circle is decidedly facilitated. But I have also used a Wimshurst machine in some experiments.

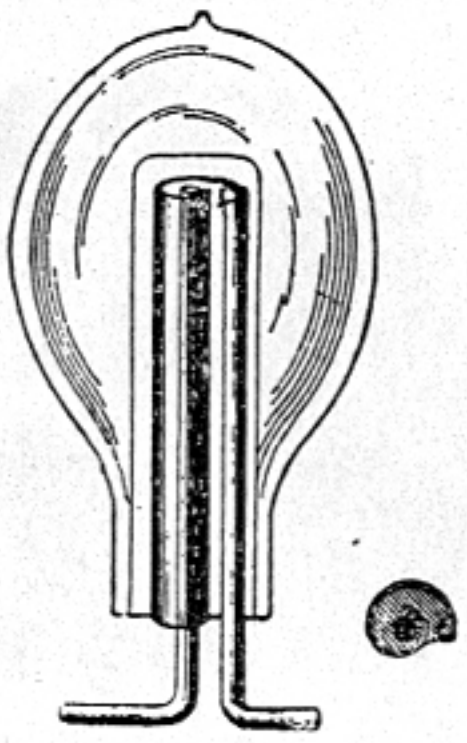

Fig. 1.

Prof. J. J. Thomson's view of the phenomena under consideration seems to be that they are wholly due to electro-magnetic action. I was, at one time, of the same opinion, but upon carefully investigating the subject I was led to the conviction that they are more of an electrostatic nature. It must be remembered that in these experiments we have to deal with primary currents of an enormous frequency or rate of change and of high potential, and that the secondary conductor consists of a rarefied gas, and that under such conditions electrostatic effects must play an important part.

In support of my view I will describe a few experiments made by me. To excite luminosity in the tube it is not absolutely necessary that the conductor should be closed. For instance, if an ordinary exhausted tube (preferably of large diameter) be surrounded by a spiral of thick copper wire serving as the primary, a feebly luminous spiral may be induced in the tube, roughly shown in Fig. 3. In one of these experiments a curious phenomenon was observed; namely, two intensely luminous circles, each of them close to a turn of the primary spiral, were formed inside of the tube, and I attributed this phenomenon to the existence of nodes on the primary. The circles were connected by a faint luminous spiral parallel to the primary and in close proximity to it. To produce this effect I have found it necessary to strain the jar to the utmost. The turns of the spiral tend to close and form circles, but this, of course, would be expected, and does not necessarily indicate an electro-magnetic effect; whereas the fact that a glow can be produced along the primary in the form of an open spiral argues for an electrostatic effect.

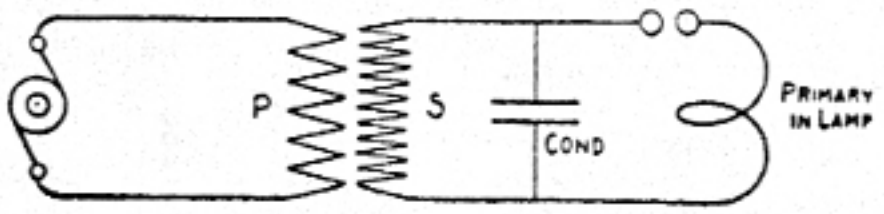

Fig. 2.

In using Dr. Lodge's recoil circuit, the electrostatic action is likewise apparent. The arrangement is illustrated in Fig. 4. In his experiments two hollow exhausted tubes H H were slipped over the wires of the recoil circuit and upon discharging the jar in the usual manner luminosity was excited in the tubes.

Another experiment performed is illustrated in Fig. 5. In this case an ordinary lamp-bulb was surrounded by one or two turns of thick copper wire P and the luminous circle L excited in the bulb by discharging the jar through the primary. The lamp-bulb was provided with a tinfoil coating on the side opposite to the primary and each time the tinfoil coating was connected to the ground or to a large object the luminosity of the circle was considerably increased. This was evidently due to electrostatic action.

In other experiments I have noted that when the primary touches the glass the luminous circle is easier produced and is more sharply defined; but I have not noted that, generally speaking, the circles induced were very sharply defined, as Prof. J. J. Thomson has observed; on the contrary, in my experiments they were broad and often the whole of the bulb or tube was illuminated; and in one case I have observed an intensely purplish glow, to which Prof. J. J. Thomson refers. But the circles were always in close proximity to the primary and were considerably easier produced when the latter was very close to the glass, much more so than would be expected assuming the action to be electromagnetic and considering the distance; and these facts speak for an electrostatic effect.

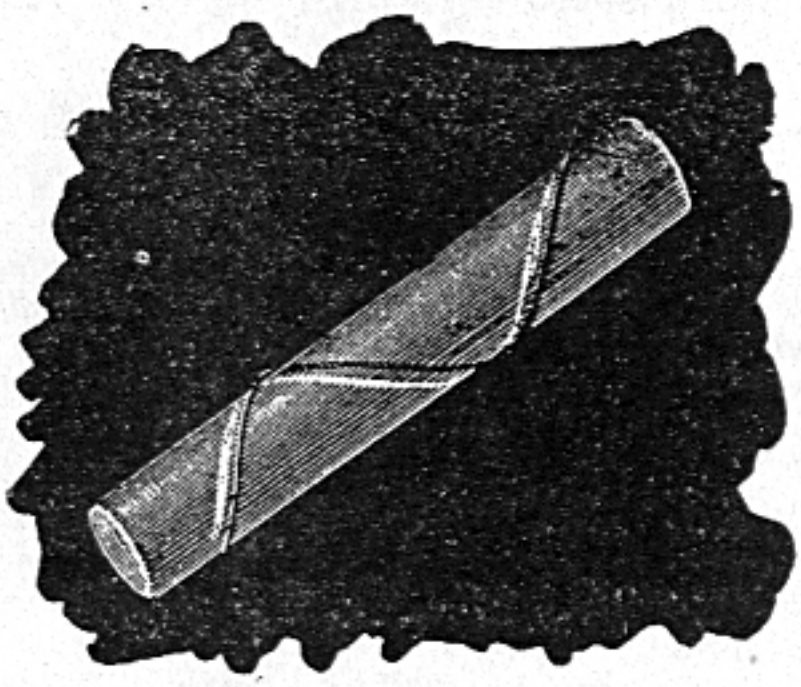

Fig. 3.

Furthermore I have observed that there is a molecular bombardment in the plane of the luminous circle at right angles to the glass — supposing the circle to be in the plane of the primary — this bombardment being evident from the rapid heating of the glass near the primary. Were the bombardment not at right angles to the glass the heating could not be so rapid. If there is a circumferential movement of the molecules constituing the luminous circle, I have thought that it might be rendered manifest by placing within the tube or bulb, radially to the circle, a thin plate of mica coated with some phosphorescent material and another such plate tangentially to the circle. If the molecules would move circumferentially, the former plate would be rendered more intensely phosphorescent. For want of time I have, however, not been able to perform the experiment.

Another observation made by me was that when the specific inductive capacity of the medium between the primary and secondary is increased, the inductive effect is augmented. This is roughly illustrated in Fig. 6. In this case luminosity was excited in an exhausted tube or bulb B and a glass tube T slipped between the primary and the bulb, when the effect pointed out was noted. Were the action wholly electromagnetic no change could possibly have been observed.

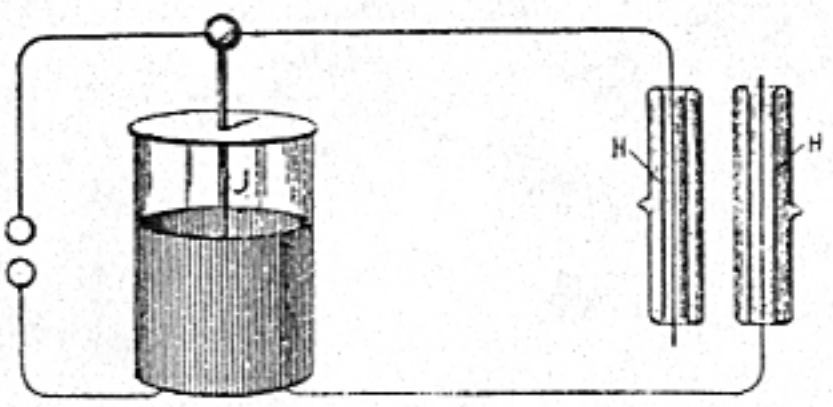

Fig. 4.

I have likewise noted that when a bulb is surrounded by a wire closed upon itself and in the plane of the primary, the formation of the luminous circle within the bulb is not prevented. But if instead of the wire a broad strip of tinfoil is glued upon the bulb, the formation of the luminous band was prevented, because then the action was distributed over a greater surface. The effect of the closed tinfoil was no doubt of an electrostatic nature, for it presented a much greater resistance than the closed wire and produced therefore a much smaller electromagnetic effect.

Some of the experiments of Prof. J. J. Thomson also would seem to show some electrostatic action. For instance, in the experiment with the bulb enclosed in a

bell jar, I should think that when the latter is exhausted so far that the gas enclosed reaches the maximum conductivity, the formation of the circle in the bulb and jar is prevented because of the space surrounding the primary being highly conducting; when the jar is further exhausted, the conductivity of the space around the primary diminishes and the circles appear necessarily first in the bell jar, as the rarefied gas is nearer to the primary. But were the inductive effect very powerful, they would probably appear in the bulb also. If, however, the bell jar were exhausted to the highest degree they would very likely show themselves in the bulb only, that is, supposing the vacuous space to be non-conducting. On the assumption that in these phenomena electrostatic actions are concerned we find it easily explicable why the

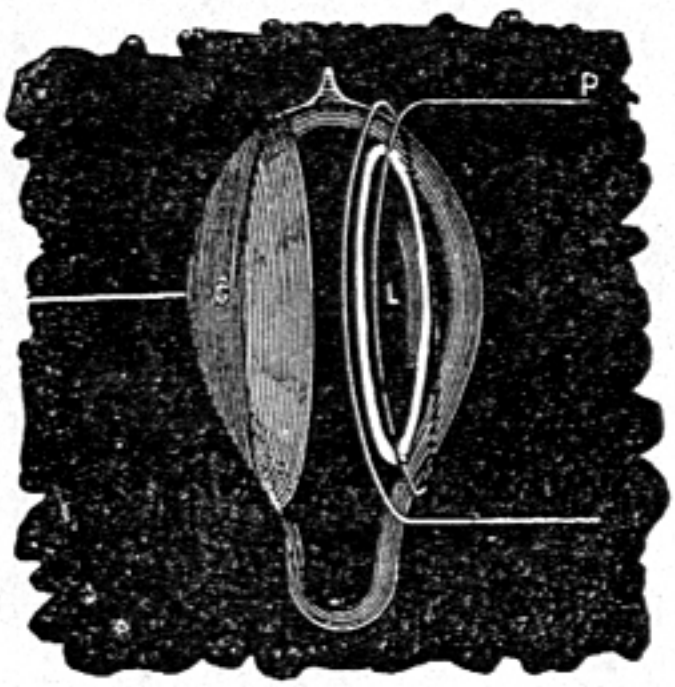

Fig. 5.

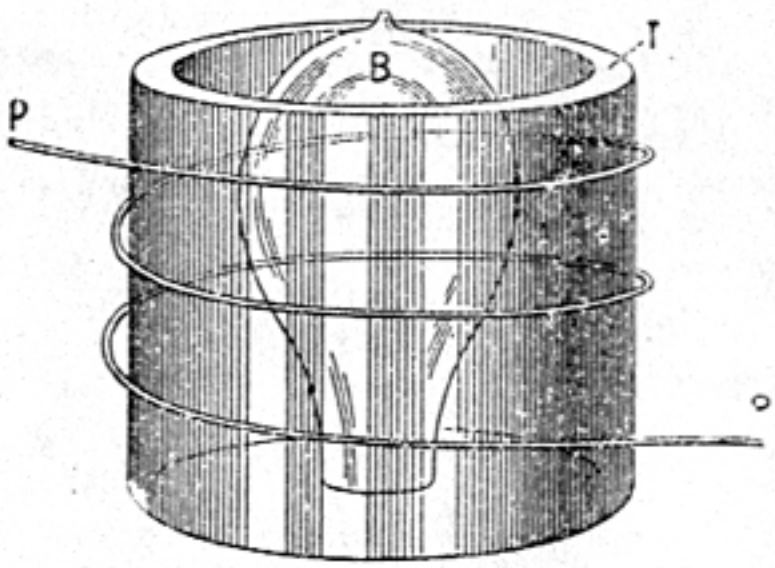

Fig. 6.

introduction of mercury or the heating of the bulb prevents the formation of the luminous band or shortens the after-glow; and also why in some cases a platinum wire may prevent the excitation of the tube. Nevertheless some of the experiments of Prof. J. J. Thomson would seem to indicate an electromagnetic effect. I may add that in one of my experiments in which a vacuum was produced by the Torricellian method, I was unable to produce the luminous band, but this may have been due to the weak exciting current employed.

My principal argument is the following: I have experimentally proved that if the same discharge which is barely sufficient to excite a luminous band in the bulb when passed through the primary circuit be so directed as to exalt the electrostatic inductive effect — namely, by converting upwards — an exhausted tube, devoid of electrodes, may be excited at a distance of several feet.

NOTE BY PROF. J. J. THOMSON IN THE LONDON *ELECTRICIAN*, JULY 24, 1891

"Mr. Tesla seems to ascribe the effects he observed to electrostatic action, and I have no doubt, from the description he gives of his method of conducting his experiments, that in them electrostatic action plays a very important part. He seems, however, to have misunderstood my position with respect to the cause of these discharges, which is not, as he implies, that luminosity in tubes without electrodes cannot be produced by electrostatic action, but that it can also be produced when this action is excluded. As a matter of fact, it is very much easier to get the luminosity when these electrostatic effects are operative than when they are not. As an illustration of this I may mention that the first experiment I tried with the discharge of a Leyden jar produced luminosity in the tube, but it was not until after six weeks' continuous

experimenting that I was able to get a discharge in the exhausted tube which I was satisfied was due to what is ordinarily called electrodynamic action. It is advisable to have a clear idea of what we mean by electrostatic action. If, previous to the discharge of the jar, the primary coil is raised to a high potential, it will induce over the glass of the tube a distribution of electricity. When the potential of the primary suddenly falls, this electrification will redistribute itself, and may pass through the rarefied gas and produce luminosity in doing so. Whilst the discharge of the jar is going on, it is difficult, and, from a theoretical point of view, undesirable, to separate the effect into parts, one of which is called electrostatic, the other electromagnetic; what we can prove is that in this case the discharge is not such as would be produced by electromotive forces derived from a potential function. In my experiments the primary coil was connected to earth, and, as a further precaution, the primary was separated from the discharge tube by a screen of blotting paper, moistened with dilute sulphuric acid, and connected to earth. Wet blotting paper is a sufficiently good conductor to screen off a stationary electrostatic effect, though it is not a good enough one to stop waves of alternating electromotive intensity. When showing the experiments to the Physical Society I could not, of course, keep the tubes covered up, but, unless my memory deceives me, I stated the precautions which had been taken against the electrostatic effect. To correct misapprehension I may state that I did not read a formal paper to the Society, my object being to exhibit a few of the most typical experiments. The account of the experiments in the *Electrician* was from a reporter's note, and was not written, or even read, by me. I have now almost finished writing out, and hope very shortly to publish, an account of these and a large number of allied experiments, including some analogous to those mentioned by Mr. Tesla on the effect of conductors placed near the discharge tube, which I find, in some cases, to produce a diminution, in others an increase, in the brightness of the discharge, as well as some on the effect of the presence of substances of large specific inductive capacity. These seem to me to admit of a satisfactory explanation, for which, however, I must refer to my paper."

REPLY TO J. J. THOMSON'S NOTE IN THE *ELECTRICIAN*, JULY 24, 1891.[1]

In *The Electrical Engineer* of August 12, I find some remarks of Prof. J. J. Thomson, which appeared originally in the London *Electrician* and which have a bearing upon some experiments described by me in your issue of July 1.

I did not, as Prof. J. J. Thomson seems to believe, misunderstand his position in regard to the cause of the phenomena considered, but I thought that in his experiments, as well as in my own, electrostatic effects were of great importance. It did not appear, from the meagre description of his experiments, that all possible precautions had been taken to exclude these effects. I did not doubt that luminosity could be excited in a closed tube when electrostatic action is completely excluded. In fact, at the outset, I myself looked for a purely electrodynamic effect and believed that I had obtained it. But many experiments performed at that time proved to me that the electrostatic effects were generally of far greater importance, and admitted of a more satisfactory explanation of most of the phenomena observed.

In using the term *electrostatic* I had reference rather to the nature of the action than to a stationary condition, which is the usual acceptance of the term. To express myself more clearly, I will suppose that near a closed exhausted tube be placed a small sphere charged to a very high potential. The sphere would act inductively upon the tube, and by distributing electricity over the same would undoubtedly produce luminosity (if the potential be sufficiently high), until a permanent condition would be reached. Assuming the tube to be perfectly well insulated, there would be only one instantaneous flash during the act of distribution. This would be due to the electrostatic action simply.

But now, suppose the charged sphere to be moved at short intervals with great speed along the exhausted tube. The tube would now be permanently excited, as the moving sphere would cause a constant redistribution of electricity and collisions of the molecules of the rarefied gas. We would still have to deal with an electrostatic effect, and in addition an electrodynamic effect would be observed. But if it were found that, for instance, the effect produced depended more on the specific inductive

[1] The Electrical Engineer, N.Y., August 26, 1891.

capacity than on the magnetic permeability of the medium — which would certainly be the case for speeds incomparably lower than that of light — then I believe I would be justified in saying that the effect produced was more of an electrostatic nature. I do not mean to say, however, that any similar condition prevails in the case of the discharge of a Leyden jar through the primary, but I think that such an action would be desirable.

It is in the spirit of the above example that I used the terms "more of an electrostatic nature," and have investigated the influence of bodies of high specific inductive capacity, and observed, for instance, the importance of the quality of glass of which the tube is made. I also endeavored to ascertain the influence of a medium of high permeability by using oxygen. It appeared from rough estimation that an oxygen tube when excited under similar conditions — that is, as far as could be determined — gives more light; but this, of course, may be due to many causes.

Without doubting in the least that, with the care and precautions taken by Prof. J. J. Thomson, the luminosity excited was due solely to electrodynamic action, I would say that in many experiments I have observed curious instances of the ineffectiveness of the screening, and I have also found that the electrification through the air is often of very great importance, and may, in some cases, determine the excitation of the tube.

In his original communication to the *Electrician,* Prof. J. J. Thomson refers to the fact that the luminosity in a tube near a wire through which a Leyden jar was discharged was noted by Hittorf. I think that the feeble luminous effect referred to has been noted by many experimenters, but in my experiments the effects were much more powerful than those usually noted.

NOTES ON A UNIPOLAR DYNAMO*

It is characteristic of fundamental discoveries, of great achievements of intellect, that they retain an undiminished power upon the imagination of the thinker. The memorable experiment of Faraday with a disc rotating between the two poles of a magnet, which has borne such magnificent fruit, has long passed into every-day experience; yet there are certain features about this embryo of the present dynamos and motors which even to-day appear to us striking, and are worthy of the most careful study.

Consider, for instance, the case of a disc of iron or other metal revolving between the two opposite poles of a magnet, and the polar surfaces completely covering both sides of the disc, and assume the current to be taken off or conveyed to the same by contacts uniformly from all points of the periphery of the disc. Take first the case of a motor. In all ordinary motors the operation is dependent upon some shifting or change of the resultant of the magnetic attraction exerted upon the armature, this process being effected either by some mechanical contrivance on the motor or by the action of currents of the proper character. We may explain the operation of such a motor just as we can that of a water-wheel. But ir the above example of the disc surrounded completely by the polar surfaces, there is no shifting of the magnetic action, no change whatever, as far as we know, and yet rotation ensues. Here, then, ordinary considerations do not apply; we cannot even give a superficial explanation, as in ordinary motors, and the operation will be clear to us only when we shall have recognized the very nature of the forces concerned, and fathomed the mystery of the invisible connecting mechanism.

Considered as a dynamo machine, the disc is an equally interesting object of study. In addition to its peculiarity of giving currents of one direction without the employment of commutating devices, such a machine differs from ordinary dynamos in that there is no reaction between armature and field. The armature current tends to set up a magnetization at right angles to that of the field current, but since the current is taken off uniformly from all points of the periphery, and since, to be exact, the external circuit may also be arranged perfectly symmetrical to the field magnet, no reaction can occur. This, however, is true only as long as the magnets are weakly energized, for when the magnets are more or less saturated, both magnetizations at right angles seemingly interfere with each other.

For the above reason alone it would appear that the output of such a machine should, for the same weight, be much greater than that of any other machine in which the armature current tends to demagnetize the field. The extraordinary output of the Forbes unipolar dynamo and the experience of the writer confirm this view.

Again, the facility with which such a machine may be made to excite itself is striking, but this may be due — besides to the absence of armature reaction — to the perfect smoothness of the current and non-existence of self-induction.

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* The Electrical Engineer, N.Y., Sept. 2, 1891.

If the poles do not cover the disc completely on both sides, then, of course, unless the disc be properly subdivided, the machine will be very inefficient. Again, in this case there are points worthy of notice. If the disc be rotated and the field current interrupted, the current through the armature will continue to flow and the field magnets will lose their strength comparatively slowly. The reason for this will at once appear when we consider the direction of the currents set up in the disc.

Referring to the diagram Fig. 1, *d* represents the disc with the sliding contacts B B' on the shaft and periphery. N and S represent the two poles of a magnet. If the

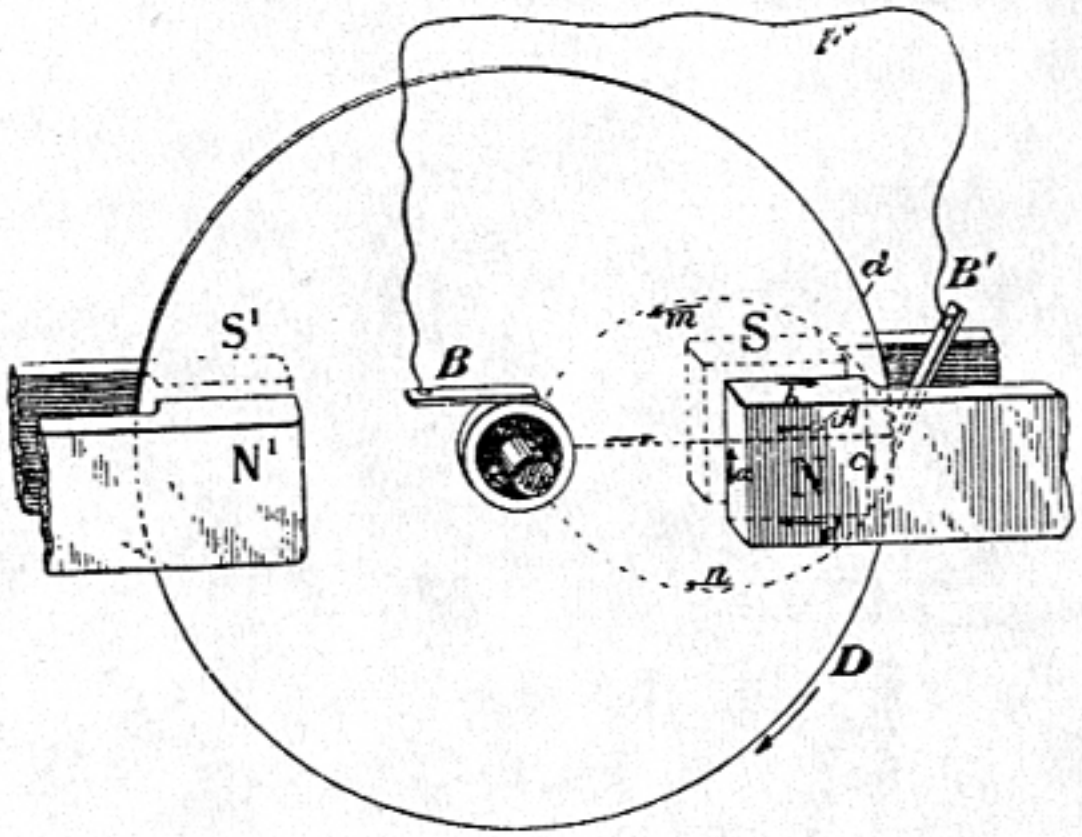

Fig. 1.

pole N be above, as indicated in the diagram, the disc being supposed to be in the plane of the paper, and rotating in the direction of the arrow D, the current set up in the disc will flow from the centre to the periphery, as indicated by the arrow A. Since the magnetic action is more or less confined to the space between the poles N S, the other portions of the disc may be considered inactive. The current set up will therefore not wholly pass through the external circuit F, but will close through the disc itself, and generally, if the disposition be in any way similar to the one illustrated, by far the greater portion of the current generated will not appear externally, as the circuit F is practically short-circuited by the inactive portions of the disc. The direction of the resulting currents in the latter may be assumed to be as indicated by the dotted lines and arrows *m* and *n*; and the direction of the energizing field current being indicated by the arrows *a b c d,* an inspection of the figure shows that one of the two branches of the eddy current, that is, A B' *m* B, will tend to demagnetize the field, while the other branch, that is, A B' *n* B, will have the opposite effect. Therefore, the branch A B' *m* B, that is, the one which is *approaching* the field, will repel the lines of the same, while branch A B' *n* B, that is, the one *leaving* the field, will gather the lines of force upon itself.

In consequence of this there will be a constant tendency to reduce the current flow in the path A B' *m* B, while on the other hand no such opposition will exist in path A B' *n* B, and the effect of the latter branch or path will be more or less preponderating over that of the former. The joint effect of both the assumed branch currents might be represented by that of one single current of the same direction as that energizing the field. In other words, the eddy currents circulating in the disc will energize the field magnet. This is a result quite contrary to what we might be led to

suppose at first, for we would naturally expect that the resulting effect of the armature currents would be such as to oppose the field current, as generally occurs when a primary and secondary conductor are placed in inductive relations to each other. But it must be remembered that this result from the peculiar disposition in this case, namely, two paths being afforded to the current, and the latter selecting that path which offers the least opposition to its flow. From this we see that the eddy currents flowing in the disc partly energize the field, and for this reason when the field current is interrupted the currents in the disc will continue to flow, and the field magnet will lose its strength with comparative slowness and may even retain a certain strength as long as the rotation of the disc is continued.

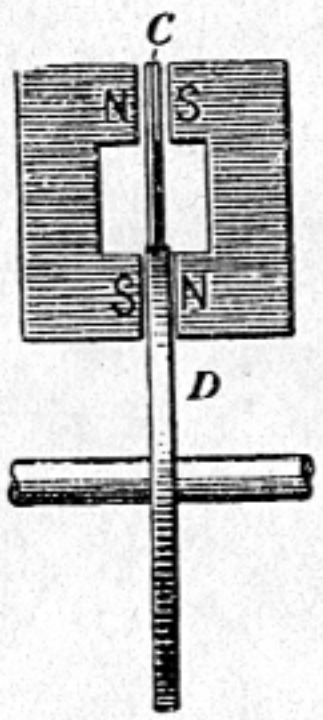

Fig. 2.

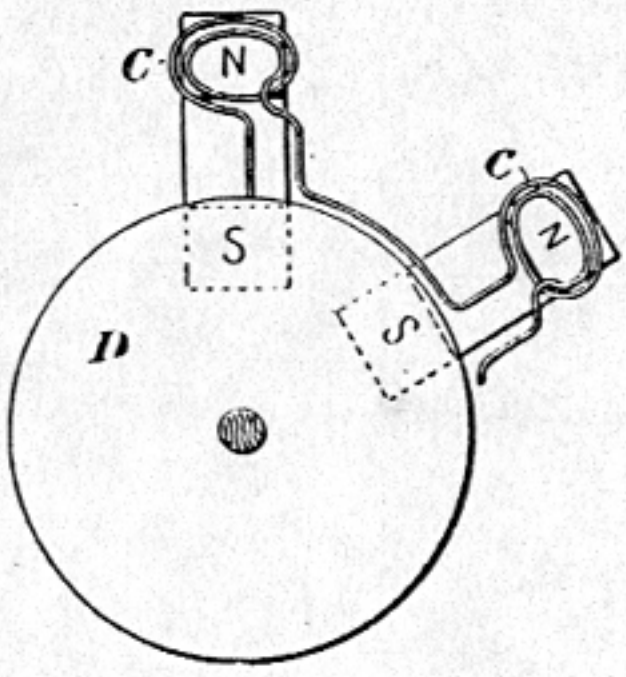

Fig. 3.

The result will, of course, largely depend on the resistance and geometrical dimensions of the path of the resulting eddy current and on the speed of rotation; these elements, namely, determine the retardation of this current and its position relative to the field. For a certain speed there would be a maximum energizing action; then at higher speeds, it would gradually fall off to zero and finally reverse, that is, the resultant eddy current effect would be to weaken the field. The reaction would be best demonstrated experimentally by arranging the fields N S, N' S', freely movable on an axis concentric with the shaft of the disc. If the latter were rotated as before in the direction of the arrow D, the field would be dragged in the same direction with a torque, which, up to a certain point, would go on increasing with the speed of rotation, then fall off, and, passing through zero, finally become negative; that is, the field would begin to rotate in opposite direction to the disc. In experiments with alternate current motors in which the field was shifted by currents of differing phase, this interesting result was observed. For very low speeds of rotation of the field the motor would show a torque of 900 lbs. or more, measured on a pulley 12 inches in diameter. When the speed of rotation of the poles was increased, the torque would diminish, would finally go down to zero, become negative, and then the armature would begin to rotate in opposite direction to the field.

To return to the principal subject; assume the conditions to be such that the eddy currents generated by the rotation of the disc strengthen the field, and suppose the latter gradually removed while the disc is kept rotating at an increased rate. The current, once started, may then be sufficient to maintain itself and even increase in strength, and then we have the case of Sir William Thomson's "current accumulator."

But from the above considerations it would seem that for the success of the experiment the employment of a disc *not subdivided* would be essential, for if there should be a radial subdivision, the eddy currents could not form and the self-exciting action would cease. If such a radially subdivided disc were used it would be necessary to connect the spokes by a conducting rim or in any proper manner so as to form a symmetrical system of closed circuits.

The action of the eddy currents may be utilized to excite a machine of any construction. For instance, in Figs. 2 and 3 an arrangement is shown by which a machine with a disc armature might be excited. Here a number of magnets, N S, N S, are placed radially on each side of a metal disc D carrying on its rim a set of insulated coils, C C. The magnets form two separate fields, an internal and an external one, the solid disc rotating in the field nearest the axis, and the coils in the field further from it. Assume the magnets slightly energized at the start; they could be strengthened by the action of the eddy currents in the solid disc so as to afford a stronger field for the peripheral coils. Although there is no doubt that under proper conditions a machine might be excited in this or a similar manner, there being sufficient experimental evidence to warrant such an assertion, such a mode of excitation would be wasteful.

But a unipolar dynamo or motor, such as shown in Fig. 1 may be excited in an efficient manner by simply properly subdividing the disc or cylinder in which the currents are set up, and it is practicable to do away with the field coils which are usually employed. Such a plan is illustrated in Fig. 4. The disc or cylinder D is supposed to be arranged to rotate between the two poles N and S of a magnet, which completely cover it on both sides, the contours of the disc and poles being represented by the

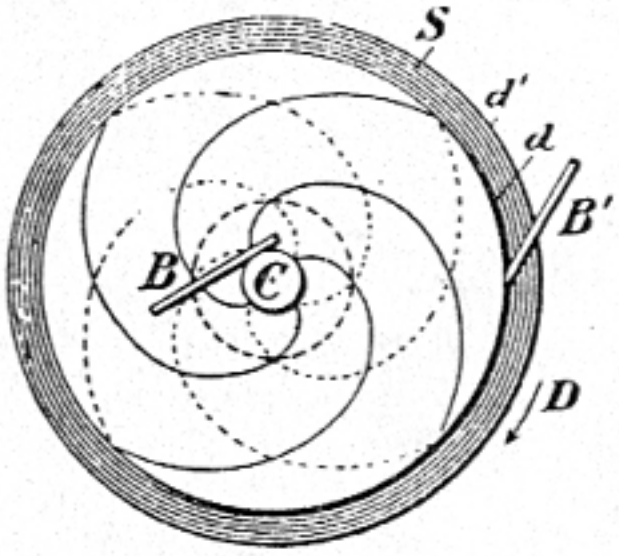

Fig. 4.

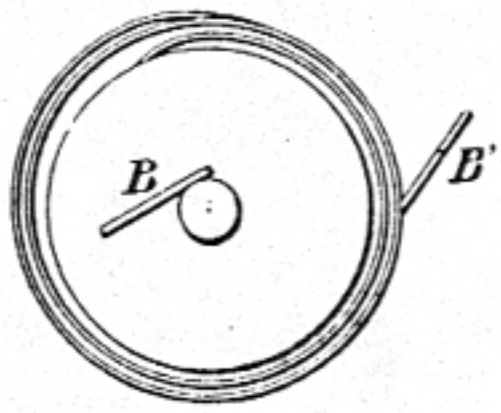

Fig. 5.

circles *d* and *d'* respectively, the upper pole being omitted for the sake of clearness. The cores of the magnet are supposed to be hollow, the shaft C of the disc passing through them. If the unmarked pole be below, and the disc be rotated screw fashion, the current will be, as before, from the centre to the periphery, and may be taken off by suitable sliding contacts, B B', on the shaft and periphery respectively. In this arrangement the current flowing through the disc and external circuit will have no appreciable effect on the field magnet.

But let us now suppose the disc to be subdivided, spirally, as indicated by the full or dotted lines, Fig. 4. The difference of potential between a point on the shaft and a point on the periphery will remain unchanged, in sign as well as in amount. The only difference will be that the resistance of the disc will be augmented and that there will be a greater fall of potential from a point on the shaft to a point on the periphery when the same current is traversing the external circuit. But since the current is forced to follow the lines of subdivision, we see that it will tend either to energize or de-energize

the field, and this will depend, other things being equal, upon the direction of the lines of subdivision. If the subdivision be as indicated by the full lines in Fig. 4, it is evident that if the current is of the same direction as before, that is, from centre to periphery, its effect will be to strengthen the field magnet; whereas, if the subdivision be as indicated by the dotted lines, the current generated will tend to weaken the magnet. In the former case the machine will be capable of exciting itself when the disc is rotated in the direction of arrow D; in the latter case the direction of rotation must be reversed. Two such discs may be combined, however, as indicated, the two discs rotating in opposite fields, and in the same or opposite direction.

Similar disposition may, of course, be made in a type of machine in which, instead of a disc, a cylinder is rotated. In such unipolar machines, in the manner indicated, the usual field coils and poles may be omitted and the machine may be made to consist only of a cylinder or of two discs enveloped by a metal casting.

Instead of subdividing the disc or cylinder spirally, as indicated in Fig. 4, it is more convenient to interpose one or more turns between the disc and the contact ring on the periphery, as illustrated in Fig. 5.

A Forbes dynamo may, for instance, be excited in such a manner. In the experience of the writer it has been found that instead of taking the current from two such discs by sliding contacts, as usual, a flexible conducting belt may be employed to advantage. The discs are in such case provided with large flanges, affording a very great contact surface. The belt should be made to bear on the flanges with spring pressure to take up the expansion. Several machines with belt contact were constructed by the writer two years ago, and worked satisfactorily; but for want of time the work in that direction has been temporarily suspended. A number of features pointed out above have also been used by the writer in connection with some types of alternating current motors.

ON ROENTGEN RAYS(1)*

One can not help looking at that little bulb of Crookes with a feeling akin to awe, when he considers all that it has done for scientific progress — first, the magnificent results obtained by its originator; next, the brilliant work of Lenard, and finally the wonderful achievements of Roentgen. Possibly it may still contain a grateful Asmodeus, who will be let out of his narrow prison cell by a lucky student. At times it has seemed to me as though I myself heard a whispering voice, and I have searched eagerly among my dusty bulbs and bottles. I fear my imagination has deceived me, but there they are still, my dusty bulbs, and I am still listening hopefully.

After repeating Professor Roentgen's beautiful experiments, I have devoted my energies to the investigation of the nature of the radiations and to the perfecting of the means for their production. The following is a brief statement which, I hope, will be useful, of the methods employed and of the most notable results arrived at in these two directions.

In order to produce the most intense effects we have first to consider that, whatever their nature, they depend necessarily on the intensity of the cathode streams. These again being dependent on the magnitude of the potential, it follows that the highest attainable electrical pressure is desirable.

To obtain high potentials we may avail ourselves of an ordinary induction coil, or of a static machine, or of a disruptive discharge coil. I have the impression that most of the results in Europe have been arrived at through the employment of a static machine or Ruhmkorff coil. But since these appliances can produce only a comparatively small potential, we are naturally thrown on the use of the disruptive discharge coil as the most effective apparatus. With this there is practically no limit to the spark length, and the only requirement is that the experimenter should possess a certain knowledge and skill in the adjustments of the circuits, particularly as to resonance, as I have pointed out in my earlier writings on this subject.

After constructing a disruptive coil suitable for any kind of current supply, direct or alternating the experimenter comes to the consideration as to what kind of bulb to employ. Clearly, if we put two electrodes in a bulb, or use one inside and another outside electrode, we limit the potential, for the presence not only of the anode but of any conducting object has the effect of reducing the practicable potential on the cathode. Thus, to secure the result aimed at, one is driven to the acceptance of a single electrode bulb, the other terminal being as far remote as possible.

Obviously, an inside electrode should be employed to get the highest velocity of the cathode streams, for the bulbs without inside terminals are much less efficient for this special object in consequence of the loss through the glass. A popular error seems to exist in regard to the concentration of the rays by concave electrodes. This, if anything, is a disadvantage. There are certain specific arrangements of the disruptive coil and

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* Electrical Review, March 11, 1896.

circuits, condensers and static screens for the bulb, on which I have given full particulars on previous occasions.

Having selected the induction apparatus and type of bulb, the next important consideration is the vacuum. On this subject I am able to make known a fact with which I have long been acquainted, and of which I have taken advantage in the production of vacuum jackets and all sorts of incandescent bulbs, and which

Fig. 1.

I subsequently found to be of the utmost importance, not to say essential, for the production of intense Roentgen shadows. I refer to a method of rarefaction by electrical means to any degree desirable far beyond that obtainable by mechanical appliances.

Though this result can be reached by the use of a static machine as well as of an ordinary induction coil giving a sufficiently high potential, I have found that by far the most suitable apparatus, and one which secures the quickest action, is a disruptive coil. It is best to proceed in this way: The bulb is first exhausted by means of an ordinary vacuum pump to a rather high degree, though my experiences have shown that this is not absolutely necessary, as I have also found it possible to rarefy, beginning from low pressure. After being taken down from the pump, the bulb is attached to the terminal of the disruptive coil, preferably of high frequency of vibration, and usually the following phenomena are noted. First, there is a milky light spreading through the bulb, or possibly for a moment the glass becomes phosphorescent, if the bulb has been exhausted to a high degree. At any rate, the phosphorescence generally subsides quickly and the white light settles around the electrode, whereupon a dark space forms at some distance from the latter. Shortly afterward the light assumes a reddish color and

the terminal grows very hot. This heating, however, is observed only with powerful apparatus. It is well to watch the bulb carefully and regulate the potential at this stage, as the electrode might be quickly consumed.

After some time the reddish light subsides, the streams becoming again white, whereupon they get weaker and weaker, wavering around the electrode until they finally disappear. Meanwhile, the phosphorescence of the glass grows more and more intense, and the spot where the stream strikes the wall becomes very hot, while the phosphorescence around the electrode ceases and the latter cools down to such an extent that the glass near it may be actually icecold to the touch. The gas in the bulb has then reached the required degree of rarefaction. The process may be hastened by repeated heating and cooling and by the employment of a small electrode. It should be added that bulbs with external electrodes may be treated in the same way. It may be also of interest to state that under certain conditions, which I am investigating more closely, the pressure of the gas in a vessel may be augmented by electrical means.

I believe that the disintegration of the electrode, which invariably takes place, is connected with a notable diminution of the temperature. From the point on, when the electrode gets cool, the bulb is in a very good condition for producing the Roentgen shadows. Whenever the electrode is equally, if not hotter than the glass, it is a sure indication that the vacuum is not high enough, or else that the electrode is too small. For very effective working, the inside surface of the wall, where the cathode stream strikes, should appear as if the glass were in a fluid state.

As a cooling medium I have found best to employ jets of cold air. By this means it is possible to operate successfully a bulb with a very thin wall, while the passage of the rays is not materially impeded.

I may state here that the experimenter need not be deterred from using a glass bulb, as I believe the opacity of glass as well as the transparency of aluminum are somewhat exaggerated, inasmuch as I have found that a very thin aluminum sheet throws a marked shadow, while, on the other hand, I have obtained impressions through a thick glass plate.

The above method is valuable not only as a means of obtaining the high vacua desired, but it is still more important, because the phenomena observed throw a light on the results obtained by Lenard and Roentgen.

Though the phenomenon of rarefaction under above conditions admits of different interpretations, the chief interest centers on one of them, to which I adhere — that is, on the actual expulsion of the particles through the walls of the bulb. I have lately observed that the latter commences to act properly upon the sensitive plate only from the point when the exhaustion begins to be noticeable, and the effects produced are the strongest when the process of exhaustion is most rapid, even though the phosphorescence might not appear particularly bright. Evidently, then, the two effects are closely connected, and I am getting more and more convinced that we have to deal with a stream of material particles, which strike the sensitive plate with great velocities. Taking as a basis the estimate of Lord Kelvin on the speed of projected particles in a Crookes' bulb, we arrive easily by the employment of very high potentials to speeds of as much as a hundred kilometres a second. Now, again, the old question arises: Are the particles from the electrode or from the charged surface generally, including the case of an external electrode, projected through the glass or aluminum walls, or do they merely hit the inner surface and cause particles from the outside of the wall to fly off, acting in a purely mechanical way, as when a row of ivory balls is struck? So far, most of the phenomena indicate that they are projected through the wall of the bulb, of whatever material it may be, and I am seeking for still more conclusive evidence in this direction.

It may not be known that even an ordinary streamer, breaking out suddenly and under great pressure from the terminal of a disruptive coil, passes through a thick glass plate as though the latter were not present. Unquestionably, with such coils pressures are practicable which will project the particles in straight lines even under atmospheric pressure. I have obtained distinct impressions in free air, not by streamers, as some experimenters have done, using static machines or induction coils, but by actual projection, the formation of streamers being absolutely prevented by careful static screening.

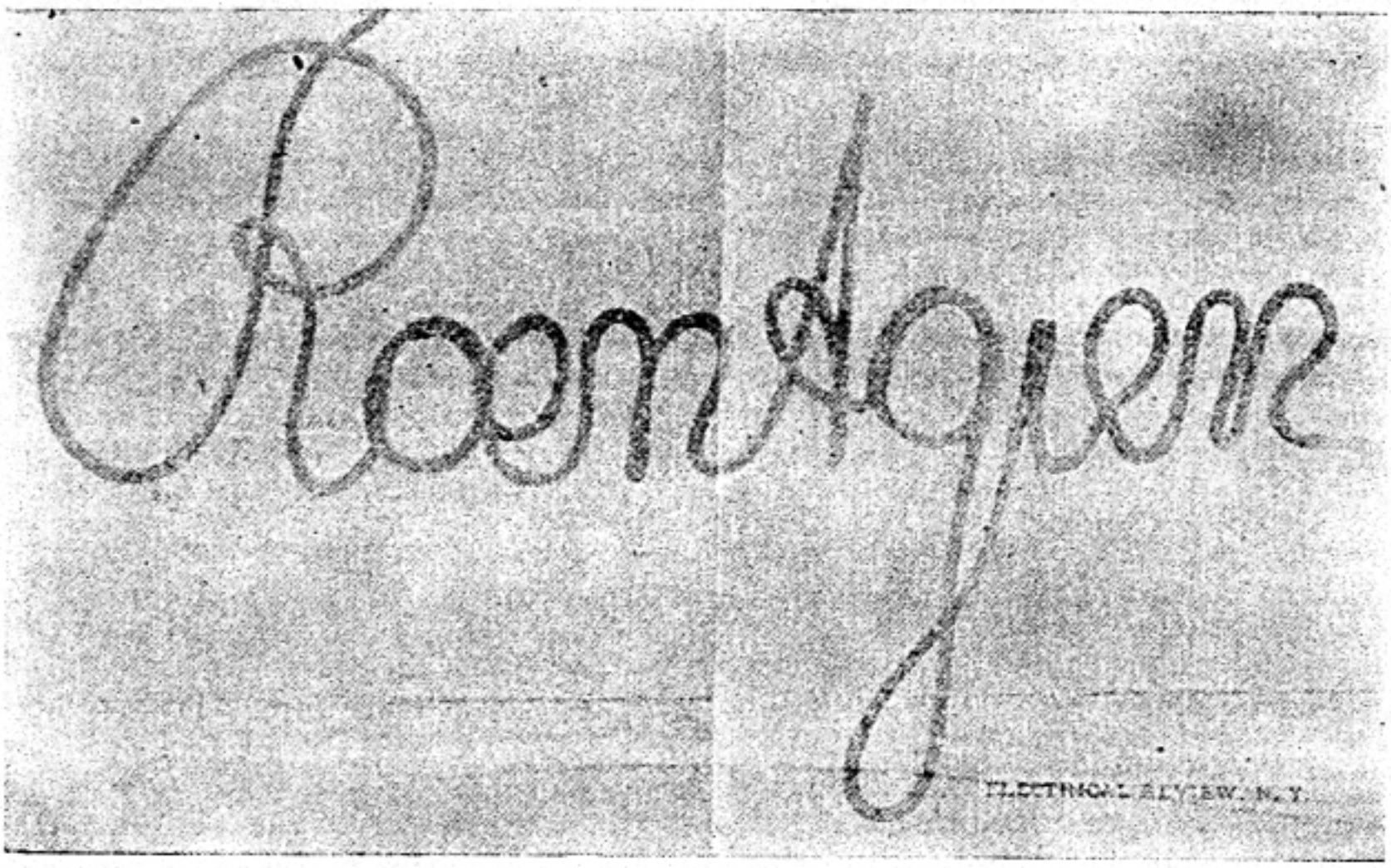

Fig. 2.

A peculiar thing about the Roentgen rays is that from low frequency to the highest obtainable there seems to be no difference in the quality of the effects produced, except that they are more intense when the frequency is higher, which is very likely due to the fact that in such case the maximum pressures on the cathode are likewise higher. This is only possible on the assumption that the effects on the sensitive plate are due to projected particles, or else to vibrations far beyond any frequency which we are able to obtain by means of condenser discharges. A powerfully excited bulb is enveloped in a cloud of violet light, extending for more than a foot around it, but outside of this visible phenomenon there is no positive evidence of the existence of waves similar to those of light. On the other hand, the fact that the opacity bears some proportion to the density of the substance speaks strongly for material streams, and the same may be said of the effect discovered by Prof. J. J. Thomson. It is to be hoped that all doubts will shortly be dispelled.

A valuable evidence of the nature of the radiations and progress in the direction of obtaining strong impressions on the plate might be arrived at by perfecting plates especially sensitive to mechanical shock or impact. There are chemicals suitable for this, and the development in this direction may lead to the abandonment of the present plate. Furthermore, if we have to deal with streams of material particles, it seems not impossible to project upon the plate a suitable substance to insure the best chemical action.

With apparatus as I have described, remarkable impressions on the plate are produced. An idea of the intensity of the effects may be gained when I mention that it is easy to obtain shadows with comparatively short exposures at distances of many feet, while at small distances and with thin objects, exposures of a few seconds are practicable. The annexed print is a shadow of a copper wire projected at a distance of 11 feet through a wooden cover over the sensitive plate. This was the first shadow taken with my improved apparatus in my laboratory. A similar impression was obtained through the body of the experimenter, a plate of glass, nearly three-sixteenths of an inch thick, a thickness of wood of fully two inches and through a distance of about four feet. I may remark, however, that when these impressions were taken, my apparatus was working under extremely unfavorable conditions, which admitted of so great improvements that I am hopeful to magnify the effects many times.

The bony structure of birds, rabbits and the like is shown within the least detail, and even the hollow of the bones is clearly visible. In a plate of a rabbit under exposure of an hour, not only every detail of the skeleton is visible, but likewise a clear outline of the abdominal cavity and the location of the lungs, the fur and many other features. Prints of even large birds show the feathers quite distinctly.

Clear shadows of the bones of human limbs are obtained by exposures ranging from a quarter of an hour to an hour, and some plates have shown such an amount of detail that it is almost impossible to believe that we have to deal with shadows only. For instance, a picture of a foot with a shoe on it was taken, and every fold of the leather, trousers, stocking, etc., is visible, while the flesh and bones stand out sharply. Through the body of the experimenter the shadows of small buttons and like objects are quickly obtained, while with an exposure of from one to one and a half hour the ribs, shoulder-bones and the bones of the upper arm appear clearly, as is shown in the annexed print. It is now demonstrated beyond any doubt that small metallic objects or bony or chalky deposits can be infallibly detected in any part of the body.

An outline of the skull is easily obtained with an exposure of 20 to 40 minutes. In one instance an exposure of 40 minutes gave clearly not only the outline, but the cavity of the eye, the chin and cheek and nasal bones, the lower jaw and connections to the upper one, the vertebral column and connections to the skull, the flesh and even the hair. By exposing the head to a powerful radiation strange effects have been noted. For instance, I find that there is a tendency to sleep and the time seems to pass away quickly. There is a general soothing effect, and I have felt a sensation of warmth in the upper part of the head. An assistant independently confirmed the tendency to sleep and a quick lapse of time. Should these remarkable effects be verified by men with keener sense of observation, I shall still more firmly believe in the existence of material streams penetrating the skull. Thus it may be possible by these strange appliances to project a suitable chemical into any part of the body.

Roentgen advanced modestly his results, warning against too much hope. Fortunately his apprehensions were groundless, for, although we have to all appearance to deal with mere shadow projections, the possibilities of the application of his discovery are vast. I am happy to have contributed to the development of the great art he has created.

ON ROENTGEN RAYS(2)*

— latest results —

To the Editior of Electrical Review

Permit me to say that I was slightly disappointed to note in your issue of March 11 the prominence you have deemed to accord to my youth and talent, while the ribs and other particulars of Fig. 1, which, with reference to the print accompanying my communication, I described as clearly visible, were kept modestly in the background. I also regretted to observe an error in one of the captions, the more so, as I must ascribe it to my own text. I namely stated on page 135, third column, seventh line: "A similar impression was obtained through the body of the experimenter, etc., through a distance of four feet." The impression here referred to was a similar one to that shown in Fig. 2, whereas the shadow in Fig. 1 was taken through a distance of 18 inches. I state this merely for the sake of correctness of my communication, but, as far as the general truth of the fact of taking such a shadow at the distance given is concerned, your caption might as well stand, for I am producing strong shadows at distances of 40 *feet.* I repeat, 40 feet and even more. Nor is this all. So strong are the actions on the film that provision must be made to guard the plates in my photographic department, located on the floor above, a distance of fully 60 feet, from being spoiled by long exposure to the stray rays. Though during my investigations I have performed many experiments which seemed extraordinary, I am deeply astonished observing these unexpected manifestations, and still more so, as even now I see before me the possibility, not to say certitude, of augmenting the effects with my apparatus at least tenfold! What may we then expect? We have to deal here, evidently, with a radiation of astonishing power, and the inquiry into its nature becomes more and more interesting and important. Here is an unlooked-for result of an action which, though wonderful in itself, seemed feeble and entirely incapable of such expansion, and affords a good example of the fruitfulness of original discovery. These effects upon the sensitive plate at so great a distance I attribute to the employment of a bulb with a single terminal, which permits the use of practically any desired potential and the attainment of extraordinary speeds of the projected particles. With such a bulb it is also evident that the action upon a fluorescent screen is proportionately greater than when the usual kind of tube is employed, and I have already observed enough to feel sure that great developments are to be looked for in this direction. I consider Roentgen's discovery, of enabling us to see, by the use of a fluorescent screen, through an opaque substance, even a more beautiful one than the recording upon the plate.

Since my previous communication to you I have made considerable progress, and can presently announce one more result of importance. I have lately obtained shadows by *reflected rays only,* thus demonstrating beyond doubt that the Roentgen rays possess this property. One of the experiments may be cited here. A thick copper tube, about a foot long, was taken and one of its ends tightly closed by the plate-holder containing

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* Electrical Review, March 18, 1896

a sensitive plate, protected by a fiber cover as usual. Near the open end of the copper tube was placed a thick plate of glass at an angle of 45 degrees to the axis of the tube. A single-terminal bulb was then suspended above the glass plate at a distance of about eight inches, so that the bundle of rays fell upon the latter at an angle of 45 degrees, and the supposedly reflected rays passed along the axis of the copper tube. An exposure of 45 minutes gave a clear and sharp shadow of a metallic object. This shadow was produced by the reflected rays, as the direct action was absolutely excluded, it having been demonstrated that even under the severest tests with much stronger actions no impression whatever could be produced upon the film through a thickness of copper equal to that of the tube. Concluding from the intensity of the action by comparison with an equivalent effect due to the direct rays, I find that approximately two per cent of the latter were reflected from the glass plate in this experiment. I hope to be able to report shortly and more fully on this and other subjects.

In my attempts to contribute my humble share to the knowledge of the Roentgen phenomena, I am finding more and more evidence in support of the theory of moving material particles. It is not my intention, however, to advance at present any view as to the bearing of such a fact upon the present theory of light, but I merely seek to establish the fact of the existence of such material streams in so far as these isolated effects are concerned. I have already a great many indications of a bombardment occurring outside of the bulb, and I am arranging some crucial tests which, I hope, will be successful. The calculated velocities fully account for actions at distances of as much as 100 feet from the bulb, and that the projection through the glass takes place seems evident from the process of exhaustion, which I have described in my previous communication. An experiment which is illustrative in this respect, and which I intended to mention, is the following: If we attach a fairly exhausted bulb containing an electrode to the terminal of a disruptive coil, we observe small streamers breaking through the sides of the glass. Usually such a streamer will break through the seal and crack the bulb, whereupon the vacuum is impaired; but, if the seal is placed above the terminal, or if some other provision is made to prevent the streamer from passing through the glass at that point, it often occurs that the stream breaks out through the side of the bulb, producing a fine hole. Now, the extraordinary thing is that, in spite of the connection to the outer atmosphere, the air can not rush into the bulb as long as the hole is very small. The glass at the place where the rupture has occurred may grow very hot — to such a degree as to soften; but it will not collapse, but rather bulge out, showing that a pressure from the inside greater than that of the atmosphere exists. On frequent occasions I have observed that the glass bulges out and the hole, through which the streamer rushes out, becomes so large as to be perfectly discernible to the eye. As the matter is expelled from the bulb the rarefaction increases and the streamer becomes less and less intense, whereupon the glass closes again, hermetically sealing the opening. The process of rarefaction, nevertheless, continues, streamers being still visible on the heated place until the highest degree of exhaustion is reached, whereupon they may disappear. Here, then, we have a positive evidence that matter is being expelled through the walls of the glass.

When working with highly strained bulbs I frequently experience a sudden, and sometimes even painful, shock in the eye. Such shocks may occur so often that the eye gets inflamed, and one can not be considered overcautious if he abstains from watching the bulb too closely. I see in these shocks a further evidence of larger particles being thrown off from the bulb.

ON REFLECTED ROENTGEN RAYS*

In previous communications in regard to the effects discovered by Roentgen, I have confined myself to giving barely a brief outline of the most noteworthy results arrived at in the course of my investigations. To state truthfully, I have ventured to express myself, the first time, after some hesitation and consequent delay, and only when I had gained the conviction that the information I had to convey was a needful one; for, in common with others, I was not quite able to free myself of a certain feeling which one must experience when he is trespassing on ground not belonging to him. The discoverer would naturally himself arrive at most of the facts in due time, and a courteous restraint in the announcement of the results on the part of his co-workers would not be amiss. How many have sinned against me by proclaiming their achievements just as I was good and ready to do it myself! But these discoveries of Roentgen, exactly of the order of the telescope and microscope, his seeing through a great thickness of an opaque substance, his recording on a sensitive plate of objects otherwise invisible, were so beautiful and fascinating, so full of promise, that all restraint was put aside, and every one abandoned himself to the pleasures of speculation and experiment. Would but every new and worthy idea find such an echo! One single year would then equal a century of progress. A delight it would be to live in such age, but a discoverer I would not wish to be.

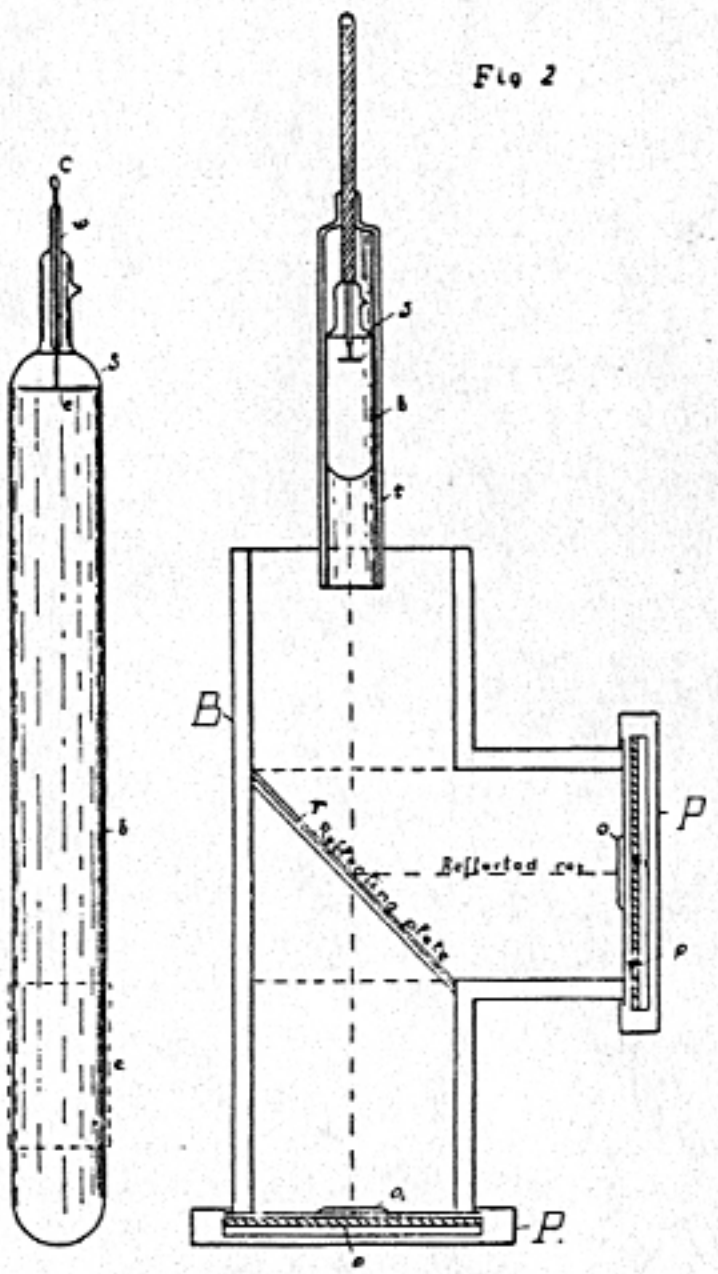
Amongst the facts, which I have had the honor to bring to notice, is one claiming a large share of scientific interest, as well as of practical importance. I refer to the demonstration of the property of reflection, on which I have dwelt briefly.

Having had opportunities to make many observations during my experience with vacuum bulbs and tubes, which could not be accounted for in any plausible way on any theory of vibration as far as I could judge, I began these investigations — disinclined, but expectant to find that the effects produced are due to a stream of material particles. I had many evidences of the existence of such streams. One of these I mentioned, describing the method of electrically exhausting a tube. Such exhaustion, I have found, takes place much quicker when the glass is very thin than when the walls are thick, I presume because of the easier passage of the ions. While a few minutes are sufficient when the glass is very thin, it often takes half an hour or more if the glass be thick or the electrode very large. In accordance with this idea I have, with a view of obtaining the most efficient action, selected the apparatus, and have found at each step my supposition confirmed and my conviction strengthened.

A stream of material particles, possessing a great velocity, must needs be reflected, and I was therefore quite prepared — assuming my original idea to be true — to demonstrate sooner or later this property. Considering that the reflection should be the more complete the smaller the angle of incidence, I adopted from the outset of my investigations a tube or bulb *b* of the form shown in Fig. 1. It was made of very thick glass, with a bottom blown as thin as possible, with the two obvious objects

* Electrical Review, April 1, 1896.

of restricting the radiation to the sides and facilitating the passage through the bottom. A single electrode *e*, in the form of a round disk of a diameter slightly less than that of the tube, was placed about an inch below the narrow neck *n* on the top. The leading-in conductor *c* was provided with a long wrapping *w*, so as to prevent cracking, by the formation of sparks at the point where the wire enters the bulb. It was found advantageous for a number of reasons to extend the wrapping a good distance beyond the neck, on the inside and outside as well, and to place the seal-off in the narrow neck. On other occasions I have dwelt on the employment of an electrostatic screen in connection with such single-terminal bulbs. In the present instance the screen was preferably formed by a bronze painting *s*, slightly above the aluminum electrode and extending to just a little below the wrapping of the wire, so as to allow seeing constantly the end of the wrapping. Or else a small aluminum plate *s*, Fig. 2, was supported in the inside of the bulb above the electrode. This static screen practically doubles the effect, as it prevented all action above it. Considering, further, that the radiation sideways was restricted by the use of a very thick glass and most of it was thrown to the bottom by reflection, as I then surmised, it became evident that such a tube should prove much more efficient than one of ordinary form. Indeed, I quickly found that its power upon the sensitive plate was very nearly four times as great as that of a spherical bulb with an equivalent area of impact. This kind of tube is also very well adapted for use with two terminals by placing an external electrode e_1 as indicated by the dotted lines in Fig. 1. When the glass is taken thick the stream is sensibly parallel and concentrated. Furthermore, by making the tube as long as one desired, it was possible to employ very high potentials, otherwise impracticable with short bulbs.



Figs. 1 and 2.

The use of high potentials is of great importance, as it allows shortening considerably the time of exposure, and affecting the plate at much greater distances. I am endeavoring to determine more exactly the relation of the potential to the effect produced upon the sensitive plate. I deem it necessary to remark that the electrode should be of aluminum, as a platinum electrode, which is still persistently employed, gives inferior results and the bulb is disabled in comparatively short time. Some experimenters might find trouble in maintaining a fairly constant vacuum, owing to a peculiar process of absorption in the bulb, which has been pointed out early by Crookes, in consequence of which, by continued use, the vacuum may increase. A convenient way to prevent this I have found to be the following: The screen or aluminum plate *s*, Fig. 2, is placed directly upon the wrapping of the leading-in conductor *c*, but some distance back from the end. The right distance can be only determined by experience. If it is properly chosen, then, during the action of the bulb, the wrapping gets warmer, and a small bright spark jumps from time to time from the wire *c* to the aluminum plate *s* through the wrapping *w*. The passage of this

spark causes gases to be formed, which slightly impair the vacuum, and in this manner, by a little skillful manipulation, the proper vacuum may be constantly maintained. Another way of getting the same result in a tube shown in Fig. 1 is to extend the wrapping so far inside that, when the bulb is normally working, the wrapping is heated sufficiently to free gases to the required amount. It is for this purpose convenient to let the screen of bronze painting *s* extend just a little below the wrapping, so that the spark may be observed. There are, however, many other ways of overcoming this difficulty, which may cause some annoyance to those working with inadequate apparatus.

In order to insure the best action the experimenter should note the various stages which I have pointed out before, and through which the bulb has to pass during the process of exhaustion. He will first observe that when the Crookes phenomena show themselves most prominently there is a reddish streamer issuing from the electrode, which in the beginning covers the latter almost entirely. Up to this point the bulb practically does not affect the sensitive plate, although the glass is very hot at the point of impact. Gradually the reddish streamer disappears, and just before it ceases to be visible the bulb begins to show better action, but still the effect upon the plate is very weak. Presently a white or even bluish stream is observed, and after some time the glass on the bottom of the bulb gets a glossy appearance. The heat is still more intense and the phosphorescence through the entire bulb is extremely brilliant. One should think that such a bulb must be effective, but appearances are often deceitful, and the beautiful bulb still does not work. Even when the white or bluish stream ceases, and the glass on the bottom is so hot as to be nearly melting, the effect on the plate is very weak. But at this stage there appears suddenly at the bottom of the tube a star-shaped changing design, as if the electrode would throw off drops of liquid. From this moment on the power of the bulb is tenfold, and at this stage it must always be kept to give the best results.

I may remark, however, that while it may be generally stated the Crookes vacuum is not high enough for the production of the Roentgen phenomena, this is not literally true. Nor are the Crookes phenomena produced at a particular degree of exhaustion, but manifest themselves even with poor vacua, provided the potential is high enough. This is likewise true of the Roentgen effects. Naturally, to verify this, provision must be made not to overheat the bulb when the potential is raised. This is easily done by reducing the number of impulses or their duration, when raising the potential. For such experiments, it will be found of advantage to use in connection with the ordinary induction coil a rotating commutator, instead of a vibrating brake. By changing the speed of the commutator, and also regulating the duration of contact, one is enabled to adjust the conditions to suit the degree of vacuum and potential employed.

In my experiments on reflection, presently considered, I have used the apparatus shown in Fig. 2. It consists of a T-shaped box throughout, of a square cross-section. The walls are made of lead over one-eighth of an inch thick, which, under the conditions of the experiments, was found to be entirely impervious, even by long exposures to the rays. On the top end was supported firmly the bulb *b*, inclosed in a glass tube *t* of thick Bohemian glass, which reached some distance into the lead box. The lower end of the box was tightly closed by a plate-holder P_1, containing the sensitive film p_1, protected as usual. Finally the side end was closed by a similar plate-holder P, with the sensitive protected film *p*. To obtain sharp images the objects *o* and o_1, exactly alike, were placed in the center of the fiber cover, protecting the sensitive plates. In the central portion of the box, provision was made for inserting a plate *r* of material, the reflective power of which was to be tested, and the dimensions of the box were such that the reflected ray and the direct one had to go through the same distance, the reflecting plate being at an angle of 45 degrees to the incident as well as reflected ray. Care was taken to exclude all possibility of action upon the plate *p*, except by reflected rays, and the reflecting plate *r* was made to fit tight all-around in the lead box,

so that no rays could reach the film p_1, except by passing through the plate to be tested. In my earliest experiments on reflection I observed only the effects of reflected rays, but in this instance, on the suggestion of Prof. Wm. A. Anthony, I provided the above means for simultaneously examining the action of the direct rays, which eventually passed through the reflecting plate. In this manner it was possible to compare the amount of the transmitted and reflected radiation. The glass tube t surrounding the bulb b served to render the stream parallel and more intense. By taking impressions at various distances I found that through a considerable distance there was but little spreading of the bundle of rays or stream of particles.

To reduce the error which is caused unavoidably by too long exposures and very small distances, I reduced the exposure to an hour, and the total distance through which the rays had to pass before reaching the sensitive plates was 20 inches, the distance from the bottom of the bulb to the reflecting plate being 13 inches.

It is needless to remark that all the precautions in regard to the sensitive plates — constancy of potential, uniform working of the bulbs, and maintenance of the same conditions in general during these tests have been taken, as far as it was practicable. The plates to be tested were made of uniform size, so as to fit the space provided in the lead box. Of the conductors the following were tested: Brass, toolsteel, zinc, aluminum, copper, lead, silver, tin, and nickel, and of the insulators, lead-glass, ebonite, and mica. The summary of the observations is given in the following table:

Reflecting body.	Impression by transmitted rays.	Impression by reflected rays.
Brass.	Strong.	Fairly strong.
Toolsteel.	Barely perceptible.	Very feeble.
Zinc.	None.	Very strong.
Aluminum.	Very strong.	None.
Copper.	None.	Fairly strong, but much less than zinc.
Lead.	None.	Very strong, but a little weaker than zinc.
Silver.	Strong, a thin plate being used.	Weaker than copper.
Tin.	None.	Very strong; about like lead.
Nickel.	None.	About like copper.
Lead-glass.	Very strong.	Feeble.
Mica.	Very strong.	Very strong; about like lead.
Ebonite.	Strong.	About like copper.

By comparing, as in previous experiments, the intensity of the impression by reflected rays with an equivalent impression due to a direct exposure of the same bulb and at the same distance — that is, by calculating from the times of exposure under assumption that the action upon the plate was proportionate to the time — the following approximate results were obtained:

Reflecting body.	Impression by direct action.	Impression by reflected rays.
Brass	100	2
Toolsteel	100	0,5
Zinc	100	3
Aluminum	100	0
Copper	100	2
Lead	100	2,5
Silver	100	1,75
Tin	100	2,5
Nickel	100	2
Lead-glass	100	1
Mica	100	2,5
Ebonite	100	2

While these figures can be but rough approximations, there is, nevertheless, a fair probability that they are correct, in so far as the relative values of the impressions by reflected rays for the various bodies are concerned. Arranging the metals according to these values, and leaving for the moment the alloys or impure bodies out of question, we arrive at the following order: Zinc, lead, tin, copper, silver. The tin appears to reflect fully as well as lead, but, allowing for an error in the observation, we may assume that it reflects less, and in this case we find that this order is precisely the contact series of metals in air. If this proves true we shall be confronted with the most extraordinary fact. Why is zinc, for instance, the best reflector among the metals tested and why, at the same time, is it one of the foremost in the contact series? I have not as yet tried magnesium. The truth is that I was somewhat excited over these results. Magnesium should be even a better reflector than zinc, and sodium still better than magnesium. How can this singular relationship be explained? The only possible explanation seems to me at present that the bulb throws out streams of matter in some primary condition, and that the reflection of these streams is dependent upon some fundamental and electrical property of the metals. This would seem to lead to the inference that these streams must be of uniform electrification; that is, that they must be anodic or cathodic in character, but not both. Since the announcement, I believe in France for the first time, that the streams are anodic, I have investigated the subject and find that I can not agree with this contention. On the contrary, I find that anodic and cathodic streams both affect the plate, and, furthermore, I have been led to the conviction that the phosphorescence of the glass has nothing whatever to do with the photographic impressions. An obvious proof is that such impressions are produced with aluminum vessels when there is no phosphorescence, and, as regards the anodic or cathodic character, the simple fact that we can produce impressions by a luminous discharge excited by induction of a closed vessel, when there is neither anode nor cathode, would seem to dispose effectually of the assumption that the streams are issuing solely from one of the electrodes. It may, perhaps, be useful to point out here a simple fact in relation to the induction coils, which may lead an experimenter into an error. When a vacuum tube is attached to the terminals of an induction coil, both of the terminals are acted upon alike as long as the tube is not very highly exhausted. At a high degree of exhaustion both the electrodes act practically independently, and since they behave as bodies possessing considerable capacity, the consequence is that the coil is unbalanced. If the cathode, for instance, is very large, the pressure on the anode may rise considerably, and if the latter is made smaller, as is frequently the case, the electric density may be many times that on the cathode. It results from this that the anode gets very hot, while the cathode may be cool. Quite the opposite occurs if both of them are made exactly alike. But assuming the above conditions to exist, the hotter anode emits a more intense stream than the cool cathode, since the velocity of the particles is dependent on the electrical density, and likewise on the temperature.

From the previous tests an interesting observation can also be made in regard to the opacity. For instance, a brass plate one-sixteenth inch thick proved fairly transparent while plates of zinc and copper of the same thickness showed themselves to be entirely opaque.

Since I have investigated reflection and arrived to results in this direction, I have been able to produce stronger effects by employing proper reflectors. By surrounding a bulb with a very thick glass tube the effect may be augmented very considerably. The employment of a zinc reflector in one instance showed an increase of about 40 per cent in the impression produced. I attach great practical value to the employment of proper reflectors, because by means of them we can employ any quantity of bulbs, and so produce any intensity of radiation required.

One disappointment in the course of these investigations has been the entire failure of my efforts to demonstrate refraction. I have employed lenses of all kinds and tried a great many experiments, but could not obtain any positive result.

ON ROENTGEN RADIATIONS*

Having observed the unexpected behavior of the various metals in regard to the reflection of these radiations, (see Electrical Review of April 1, 1896) I have endeavored to settle several still doubtful points. As, for the present, it appeared chiefly desirable to establish the exact order of the metals, or conductors, in regard to their powers of reflection, leaving for further investigation the determination of the magnitude of the effects, I modified slightly the apparatus and procedure described in my communication just referred to. The reflecting plates were not made each of one metal, as before, but of two metals, the reflective power of which was to be compared. This was done by fastening upon a plate of lead the two metal plates to be investigated, so that the reflecting surface was divided in two halves by the joining line. Furthermore, to prevent any spreading and mingling of the rays reflected from both halves, I divided the lead box into two compartments by a thick lead plate through the middle. Care was taken that the density of the rays falling upon the reflecting surfaces was as uniform as possible, and with this object in view the glass tube surrounding the bulb was lifted up so as to just expose the half-spherical bottom of the latter. The bulb was placed as exactly as it was practicable in the center, so that both halves of the reflecting plate were equally exposed to the radiations.

Having failed to obtain, in former experiments, a record for iron owing to an oversight, I tried to ascertain its position in the series by comparing it with copper, using a plate made up of iron and copper. The experiments showed that iron reflected about as much as copper, but which metal reflected better was impossible to determine with safety by this metod. Next I endeavored to find whether tin or lead was a better reflector, by the same method. Three experiments were performed, and in each case the metals behaved nearly alike, but tin appeared just a trifle better. Finally I investigated the properties of magnesium as compared with zinc. In fact, the experiments showed that magnesium reflected a little better.

I am not yet satisfied, in view of the importance of this relation of the metals with the means employed, and will try to devise an apparatus which will do away with all the defects of the present. The time of the exposure I have found practicable to reduce to a few minutes by the help of a fluorescent paper.

In my previous communications I have barely hinted at the practical importance of the use of suitable refectors. One would be apt to conclude that, since under the conditions of the previously described experiments, zinc, for instance, reflected only three per cent of the incident rays, the gain secured by the employment of such zinc reflector would be small. This, of course, would be an erroneous conclusion. First of all it should be remembered that in the instances mentioned before the angle of incidence was 45 degrees, and that for larger angles a much greater portion of the rays would be reflected. The exact law of reflecton is still to be determined. Now, let us

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* Electrical Review, April 8, 1896.

suppose the shadow of an object is taken at a distance, D. In order to get a sharp shadow we must take this distance not less than two feet, and I am finding it more and more necessary to adopt a still greater distance. If, for the sake of simplicity, we assume a spherical bulb and electrode, the radiation will be uniform on all sides, and any element of a surface of a sphere of radius *D,* drawn around the electrode, will receive an equal quantity of rays. The total surface of this sphere will be $4 \pi D_2$. The object, the shadow of which is to be taken, may have a small area *a,* which gets only an

insignificant part of the total rays emitted, this part being given by the proportion $\frac{a}{4 \pi D^2}$. In reality we can not assume less than $\frac{a}{D^2 \pi}$ as effective ratio, but even then, if *D* is very large and the object, that is, the area *a,* small, this ratio may be still so small that evidently, by the use of a proper reflector, we can easily concentrate upon the area *a* an amount of rays several times exceeding that which would fall upon it without the use of a reflector, in spite of the fact that we are able to reflect only a few per cent of the *total* incident rays.

As an evidence of the effectiveness of such a reflector, the annexed print of the shoulder and ribs of a man is shown. A funnel-shaped zinc reflector, two feet high, with an opening of five inches on the bottom and 23 inches at the top, was used in the experiment. A tube, similar in every respect to those previously described, was suspended in the funnel, so that just the static screen of the tube was above the former. The exact distance from the electrode to the sensitive plate was four and one-half feet. The distance from the end of the tube to the plate was three and one-half feet. The exposure

lasted 40 minutes. The plate showed very strongly and clearly every bone, and shoulder and ribs, but I can not tell how clearly they will appear in the print. I selected the same object as in my first report in your columns on this investigation, so as to give a better idea of the progress made. The advance will be best appreciated by stating that the distance in this case was much more than double, while the time of exposure was less than one-half. The chief importance of a reflector consists, however, in this, that it allows the use of many bulbs without sacrifice of precision and clearness, and also the concentration of a great quantity of radiation upon a very small area.

Since the use of phosphorescent or fluorescent bodies in connection with the sensitive film has been suggested by Professors Henry and Salvioni, I have found it an easy matter to shorten the time of exposure to a few minutes, or even seconds. So far, it seems that the tungstate of calcium, recently introduced by Edison, and manufactured by Messrs. Aylsworth & Jackson, is the most sensitive body. I obtained a sample of it and used it in a series of tests. It fluoresces decidedly better than barium-platino-cyanide, but, owing to the size of the crystals and necessarily uneven distribution on the paper, it does not leave a clean impression. For use in connection with the sensitive films, it should be ground very fine, and some way should be adopted of distributing it uniformly. The paper also must adhere firmly to the film all over the plate, so as to get fairly sharp outlines. The fluorescence of this body seems to depend on a peculiar radiation, because I tested several bulbs, which otherwise worked excellently, without producing a very good result, and I almost gained a false impression. One or two of the bulbs, however, effected it very powerfully. An impression of the hand was taken at a distance of about six feet from the bulb with an exposure of less than one minute, and even then it was found that the plate was overexposed. I then took an impression of the chest of a man at a distance of 12 feet from the end of the tube, exposing five minutes. The developed plate showed the ribs clearly, but the outlines were not sharp. Next, I employed a tube with a zinc reflector, as before described, taking an impression of the chest of an assistant at a distance of four feet from the bulb. The latter was strained a little too much in this experiment and exploded, in consequence of the great internal pressure against the bombarded spot. This accident will frequently occur when the bulb is strained too high, the preceding outward sign being an increased activity and vaporlike appearance of the gas in the bulb and rapid heating of the latter. The process causing the abnormal increase in the internal pressure against the glass wall seems to be due to some action opposite to that noted by Crookes and Spottiswoode, and is very rapid, and for this reason the experimenter should watch carefully for these ominous signs and instantly reduce the potential. Owing to the untimely end of the bulb in this last described experiment, the exposure lasted only one minute. Nevertheless, a very strong impression of the skeleton of the chest, showing the right and left ribs and other details, was obtained. The outlines, however, were again much less sharp than when the ordinary process without the phosphorescent intensifier was followed, although care was taken to press the fluorescent paper firmly against the film. From the foregoing it is evident that, when using the above means for shortening the time of exposure, the thickness of the object is not of very much consequence.

I obtained a still better idea of the quality of tungstate of calcium by observing the effect upon a fluorescent screen made of this chemical. Such a screen, together with a paper box, has been termed with the fanciful name "fluoroscope." It is really Salvioni's Cryptoscope with the lens omitted, which is a great disadvantage. To appreciate the performances of such a screen, it is necessary to work at night, when the eye has for a long time been used to the darkness, and made capable of noting the faint effects on the screen. In one instance the performance of this screen was particularly noteworthy. It was illuminated at a distance of 20 feet, and even at a distance of 40 feet I could still observe a faint shadow passing across the field of vision, when moving the hand

in front of the instrument. Looking at a distance of about three feet from the bulb through the body of an assistant, I could distinguish easily the spinal column in the upper part of the body, which was more transparent. In the lower part of the body the column and the rest were practically not perceptible. The ribs were only very faintly seen. The bones of the neck were plainly noticeable, and I could see through the body of the assistant very easily a square plate of copper, as it was moved up and down in front of the bulb. When looking through the head I could observe only the outline of the skull and the chin-bone, yet the field of vision was still bright. Everything else appeared indistinct. This shows that improving of fluorescence will not aid us very much in the examination of the internal parts of the body. The solution rather will come through the production of very powerful radiations, capable of producing very strong shadows. I believe I have indicated the right way to secure this result. Although it must be admitted that the performance of such a screen is remarkable with the appliances I have used, I have, nevertheless, convinced myself of its still limited value for the purpose of examination. We can distinguish the bones in the limbs, but not nearly as clearly as a photographic impression shows it. Eventually, however, with the help of strong radiations and good reflectors, such fluorescent screens may become valuable instruments for investigation. A few weeks ago, when I observed a small screen of barium-platino-cyanide flare up at a great distance from the bulb, I told some friends that it might be possible to observe by the aid of such a screen objects passing through a street. This possibility seems to me much nearer at present than it appeared then. Forty feet is a fair width for a street, and a screen lights up faintly at that distance from a single bulb. I mention this odd idea only as an illustration of how these scientific developments may even affect our morals and customs. Perhaps we shall shortly get so used to this state of things that nobody will feel the slightest embarrassment while he is conscious that his skeleton and other particulars are being scrutinized by indelicate observers.

Fluorescent screens afford some help in getting an idea of the condition of the bulb when working. I hoped to find some evidence of refraction by means of such a screen, placing a lens between it and the bulb, and varying the focal distance. To my disappointment, although the shadow of the lens was observable at a distance of 20 feet, I could see no trace of refraction. The use of the screen for the purpose of noting the effects of reflection and diffraction proved likewise futile.

ROENTGEN RAY INVESTIGATIONS*

Further investigations concerning the behavior of the various metals in regard to reflection of these radiations have given additional support to the opinion which I have before expressed; namely, that Volta's electric contact series in air is identical with that which is obtained when arranging the metals according to their powers of reflection, the most electro-positive metal being the best reflector. Confining myself to the metals easily experimented upon, this series is magnesium, lead, tin, iron, copper, silver, gold and platinum. The lastnamed metal should be found to be the poorest, and sodium one of the best, reflectors. This relation is rendered still more interesting and suggestive when we consider that this series is approximately the same which is obtained when arranging the metals according to their energies of combination with oxygen, as calculated from their chemical equivalents.

Should the above relation be confirmed by other physicists, we shall be justified to draw the following conclusions: *First,* the highly exhausted bulb emits material streams which, impinging on a metallic surface, are reflected; *second,* these streams are formed of matter in some primary or elementary condition; *third,* these material streams are probably the same agent which is the cause of the electro-motive tension between metals in close proximity or actual contact, and they may possibly, to some extent, determine the energy of combination of the metals with oxygen; *fourth,* every metal or conductor is more or less a source of such streams; *fifth,* these streams or radiations must be produced by some radiations which exist in the medium; and *sixth,* streams resembling the cathodic must be emitted by the sun and probably also by other sources of radiant energy, such as an arc light or Bunsen burner.

The first of these conclusions, assuming the above-cited fact to be correct, is evident and uncontrovertible. No theory of vibration of any kind would account for this singular relation between the powers of reflection and electric properties of the metals. Streams of projected matter coming in actual contact with the reflecting metal surface afford the only plausible explanation.

The second conclusion is likewise obvious, since no difference whatever is observed by employing various qualities of glass for the bulb, electrodes of different metals and any kind of residual gases. Evidently, whatever the matter constituting the streams may be, it must undergo a change in the process of expulsion, or, generally speaking, projection — since the views in this regard still differ — in such a way as to lose entirely the characteristics which it possessed when forming the electrode, or wall of the bulb, or the gaseous contents of the latter.

The existence of the above relation between the reflecting and contact series forces us likewise to the third conclusion, because a mere coincidence of that kind is, to say the least, extremely improbable. Besides, the fact may be cited that there is always a

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* Electrical Review, April 22, 1896.

difference of potential set up between two metal plates at some distance and in the path of the rays issuing from an exhausted bulb.

Now, since there exists an electric pressure of difference of potential between two metals in close proximity or contact, we must, when considering all the foregoing, come to the fourth conclusion, namely, that the metals emit similar streams, and I therefore anticipate that, if a sensitive film be placed between two plates, say, of magnesium and copper, a true Roentgen shadow picture would be obtained after a very long exposure in the dark. Or, in general, such picture could be secured whenever the plate is placed near a metallic or conducting body, leaving for the present the insulators out of consideration. Sodium, one of the first of the electric contact series, but not yet experimented upon, should give out more of such streams than even magnesium.

Obviously, such streams could not be forever emitted, unless there is a continuous supply of radiation from the medium in some other form; or possibly the streams which the bodies themselves emit are merely reflected streams coming from other sources. But since all investigation has strengthened the opinion advanced by Roentgen that for the production of these radiations some impact is required, the former of the two possibilities is the more probable one, and we must assume that the radiations existing in the medium and giving rise to those here considered partake something of the nature of cathodic streams.

But if such streams exist all around us in the ambient medium, the question arises, whence do they come? The only answer is: From the sun. I infer, therefore, that the sun and other sources of radiant energy must, in a less degree, emit radiations or streams of matter similar to those thrown off by an electrode in a highly exhausted inclosure. This seems to be, at this moment, still a point of controversy. According to my present convictions a Roentgen shadow picture should, with very long exposures, be obtained from all sources of radiant energy, provided the radiations are permitted first to impinge upon a metal or other body.

The preceding considerations tend to show that the lumps of matter composing a cathodic stream in the bulb are broken up into incomparably smaller particles by impact against the wall of the latter, and, owing to this, are enabled to pass into the air. All evidence which I have so far obtained points rather to this than to the throwing off of particles of the wall itself under the violent impact of the cathodic stream. According to my convictions, then, the difference between Lenard and Roentgen rays, if there be any, lies solely in this, that the particles composing the latter are incomparably smaller and possess a higher velocity. To these two qualifications I chiefly attribute the non-deflectibility by a magnet which I believe will be disproved in the end. Both kinds of rays, however, affect the sensitive plate and fluorescent screen, only the rays discovered by Roentgen are much more effective. We know now that these rays are produced under certain exceptional conditions in a bulb, the vacuum being extremely high, and that the range of greatest activity is rather small.

I have endeavored to find whether the reflected rays possess certain distinctive features, and I have taken pictures of various objects with this purpose in view, but no marked difference was noted in any case. I therefore conclude that the matter composing the Roentgen rays does not suffer further degradation by impact against bodies. One of the most important tasks for the experimenter remains still to determine what becomes of the energy of these rays. In a number of experiments with rays reflected from and transmitted through a conducting of insulating plate, I found that only a small part of the rays could be accounted for. For instance, through a zinc plate, one-sixteenth of an inch thick, under an incident angle of 45 degrees, about two and one-half per cent were reflected and about three per cent transmitted through the plate, hence over 94 per cent of the total radiation remain to be accounted for. All the tests which I have been able to make have confirmed Roentgen's statement that these

rays are incapable of raising the temperature of a body. To trace this lost energy and account for it in a plausible way will be equivalent to making a new discovery.

Since it is now demonstrated that all bodies reflect more or less, the diffusion through the air is easily accounted for. Observing the tendency to scatter through the air, I have been led to increase the efficiency of reflectors by providing not one, but separated successive layers for reflection, by making the reflector of thin sheets of metal, mica or other substances. The efficiency of mica as a reflector I attribute chiefly to the fact that it is composed of many superimposed layers which reflect individually. These many successive reflections are, in my opinion, also the cause of the scattering through the air.

In my communication to you of April 1, I have for the first time stated that these rays are composed of matter in a "primary" or elementary condition or state. I have chosen this mode of expression in order to avoid the use of the word "ether", which is usually understood in the sense of the Maxwellian interpretation, which would not be in accord with my present convictions in regard to the nature of the radiations.

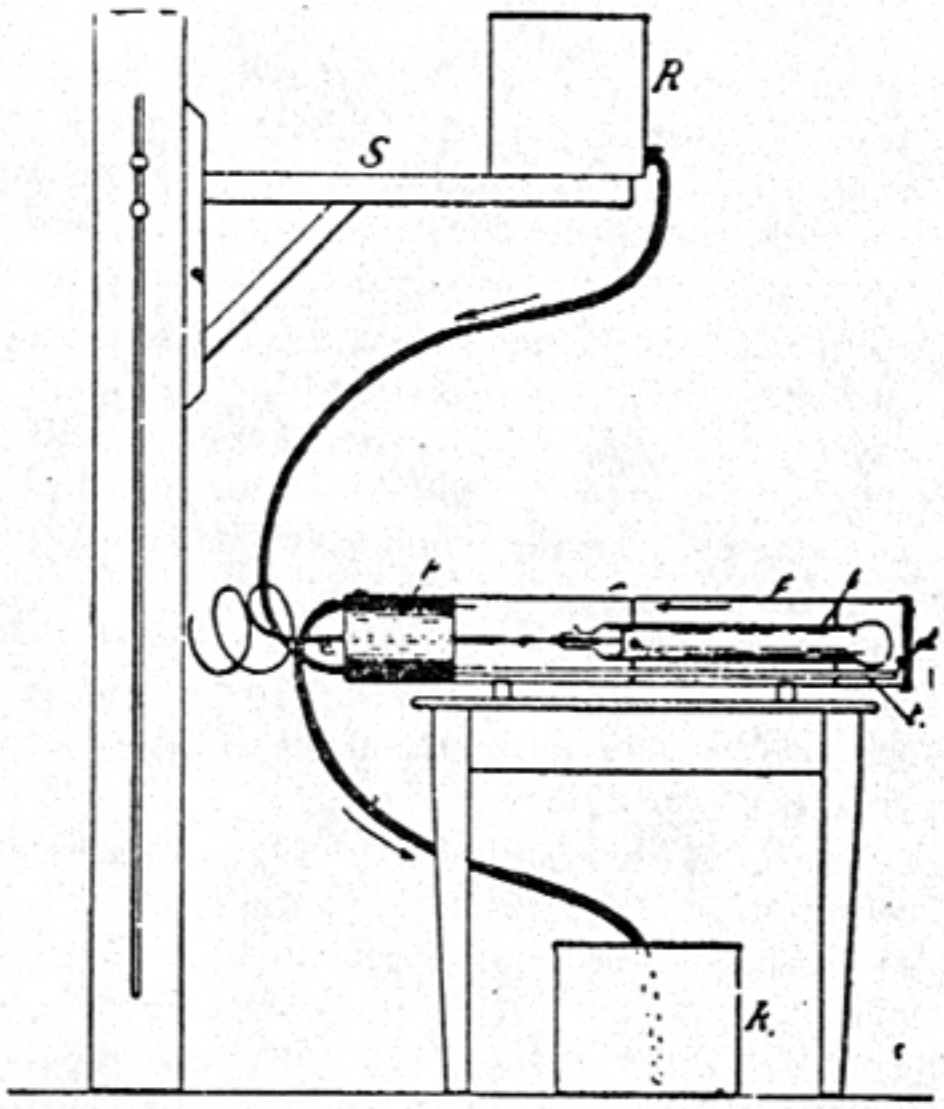
An observation which might be of some interest is the following: A few years ago I described on one occasion a phenomenon observed in highly exhausted bulbs. It is a brush or stream issuing from a single electrode under certain conditions, which rotates very rapidly in consequence of the action of the earth's magnetism. Now I have recently observed this same phenomenon in several bulbs which were capable of impressing the sensitive film and fluorescent screen very strongly. As the brush is rapidly twirling around I have conjectured that perhaps also the Lenard and Roentgen streams are rotating under the action of the earth's magnetism, and I am endeavoring to obtain an evidence of such motion by studying the action of a bulb in various positions with respect to the magnetic axis of the earth.

In so far as the vibrational character of the rays is concerned, I still hold that the vibration is merely that which is conditioned by the apparatus employed. With the ordinary induction coil we have almost exclusively to deal with a very low vibration impressed by the commutating device or brake. With the disruptive coil we usually have a very strong superimposed vibration in addition to the fundamental one, and it is easy to trace sometimes as much as the fourth octave of the fundamental vibration. But I can not reconcile myself with the idea of vibrations approximating or even exceeding those of light, and think that all these effects could be as well produced with a steady electrical pressure as from a battery, with the exclusion of all vibration which may occur, even in such instance, as has been pointed out by De La Rive. In my experiments I have tried to ascertain whether a greater difference between the shadows of the bones and flesh could be obtained by employing currents of extremely high frequency, but I have been unable to discover any such effect which would be dependent on the frequency of the currents, although the latter were varied between as wide limits as was possible. But it is a rule that the more intense the action the sharper the shadows obtained, provided that the distance is not too small. It is furthermore of the greatest importance for the clearness of the shadows that the rays should be passed through some tubular reflector, which renders them sensibly parallel.

In order then to bring out as much detail as possible on a sensitive plate, we have to proceed in precisely the same way as if we had to deal with flying bullets hitting against a wall composed of parts of different density with the problem before us of producing as large as possible a difference in the trajectories of the bullets which pass through the various parts of the wall. Manifestly, this difference will be the greater the greater the velocity of the bullets; hence, in order to bring out detail, very strong radiations are required. Proceeding on this theory I have employed exceptionally thick films and developed very slowly, and in this way clearer pictures have been obtained. The importance of slow development has been first pointed out by Professor Wright,

of Yale. Of course, if Professor Henry's suggestion of the use of a fluorescent body in contact with the sensitive film is made use of, the process is reduced to an ordinary quick photographic procedure, and the above consideration does not apply.

It being desirable to produce as powerful a radiation as possible, I have continued to devote my attention to this problem and have been quite successful. First of all, there existed limitations in the vacuum tube which did not permit the applying of as high a potential as I desired; namely, when a certain high degree of exhaustion was reached a spark would form behind the electrode, which would prevent straining the



tube much higher. This inconvenience I have overcome entirely by making the wire leading to the electrode very long and passing it through a narrow channel, so that the heat from the electrode could not cause the formation of such sparks. Another limitation was imposed by streamers which would break out at the end of the tube when the potential was excessive. This latter inconvenience I have overcome either by the use of a cold blast of air along the tube, as I have mentioned before, or else by immersion of the tube in oil. The oil, as it is now well known, is a means of rendering impossible the formation of streamers by the exclusion of all air. The use of the oil in connection with the production of these radiations has been early advocated in this country by Professor Trowbridge. Originally I employed a wooden box made thoroughly tight with wax and filled with oil or other liquid, in which the tube was immersed. Observing certain specific actions, I modified and improved the apparatus, and in my later investigations I have employed an arrangement as shown in the annexed cut. A bulb *b,* of the kind described before, with a leading-in wire and neck much longer than here shown, was inserted into a large and thick glass tube *t*. The tube was closed in front by a diaphragm *d* of pergament, and by a rubber plug P in the back. The plug was provided with two holes, into the lower one of which a glass tube t_1, reaching to very nearly the end of the bulb, was inserted. Oil of some kind was made to flow through rubber tubes *r r* from a large reservoir R, placed on an adjustable support S, to the lower reservoir R_1, the path of the oil being clearly observable from the drawing.

By adjusting the difference of the level between the two reservoirs it was easy to maintain a permanent condition of working. The outer glass tube *t* served in part as a reflector, while at the same time it permitted the observation of the bulb *b* during the action. The plug P, in which the conductor *c* was tightly sealed, was so arranged that it could be shifted in and out of the tube *t*, so as to vary the thickness of the oil traversed by the rays.

I have obtained some results with this apparatus which clearly show the advantage of such disposition. For instance, at a distance of 45 feet from the end of the bulb my assistants and myself could observe clearly the fingers of the hand through a screen of tungstate of calcium, the rays traversing about two and one half inches of oil and the diaphragm *d*. It is practicable with such apparatus to make photographs of small objects at a distance of 40 feet, with only a few minutes exposure, by the help of Professor Henry's method. But, even without the use of a fluorescent powder, short exposures are practicable, so that I think the use of the above method is not essential for quick procedure. I rather believe that in the practical development of this principle, if it shall be necessary, Professor Salvioni's suggestion of a fluorescent emulsion, combined with a film, will have to be adopted. This is bound to give better results than an independent fluorescent screen, and will very much simplify the process. I may say, however, that, since my last communication, considerable improvement has been made in the screens. The manufacturers of Edison's tungstate of calcium are now furnishing screens which give fairly clean pictures. The powder is fine and it is more uniformly distributed. I consider, also, that the employment of a softer and thicker paper than before is of advantage. It is just to remark that the tungstate of calcium has also proved to be an excellent fluorescent in the bulb. I tested its qualities for such use immediately and find it so far unexcelled. Whether it will be so for a long time remains to be seen. News reaches us that several fluorescent bodies, better than the cyanides, have been discovered abroad.

Another improvement with a view of increasing the sharpness of the shadows has been proposed to me by Mr. E. R. Hewitt. He assumed that the absence of sharpness of the outlines in the shadows on the screen was due to the spread of the fluorescence from crystal to crystal. He proposed to avoid this by using a thin aluminum plate with many parallel grooves. Acting on this suggestion, I made some experiments with wire gauze and, furthermore, with screens made of a mixture of a fluorescent with a non-fluorescent powder. I found that the general brightness of the screen was dininished, but that with a strong radiation the shadows appeared sharper. This idea might be found capable of useful application.

By the use of the above apparatus I have been enabled to examine much better than before the body by means of the fluorescent screen. Presently the vertebral column can be seen quite clearly, even in the lower part of the body. I have also clearly noted the outlines of the hip bones. Looking in the region of the heart I have been able to locate in unmistakably. The background appeared much brighter, and this difference in the intensity of the shadow and surrounding has surprised me. The ribs I could now see on a number of occasions quite distinctly, as well as the shoulder bones. Of course, there is no difficulty whatever in observing the bones of all limbs. I noted certain peculiar effects which I attribute to the oil. For instance, the rays passed through plates of metal over one-eighth of an inch thick, and in one instance I could see quite clearly the bones of my hand through sheets of copper, iron and brass of a thickness of nearly one-quarter of an inch. Through glass the rays seemed to pass with such freedom that, looking through the screen in a direction at right angles to the axis of the tube, the action was most intense, although the rays had to pass through a great thickness of glass and oil. A glass slab nearly one-half of an inch thick, held in front of the screen, hardly dimmed the fluorescence. When holding the screen in front of the tube at

a distance of about three feet, the head of an assistant, thrust between the screen and the tube, cast but a feeble shadow. It appeared some times as if the bones and the flesh were equally transparent to the radiations passing through the oil. When very close to the bulb, the screen was illuminated through the body of an assistant so strongly that, when a hand was moved in front, I could clearly note the motion of the hand through the body. In one instance I could even distinguish the bones of the arm.

Having observed the extraordinary transparence of the bones in some instances, I at first surmised that the rays might be vibrations of high pitch, and that the oil had in some way absorbed a part of them. This view, however, became untenable when I found that at a certain distance from the bulb I obtained a sharp shadow of the bones. This latter observation led me to apply usefully the screen in taking impressions on the plate. Namely, in such case it is of advantage to first determine by means of the screen the proper distance at which the object is to be placed before taking the impression. It will be found that often the image is much clearer at a greater distance. In order to avoid any error when observing with the screen, I have surrounded the box with thick metal plates, so as to prevent the fluorescence, in consequence of the radiations, reaching the screen from the sides. I believe that such an arrangement is absolutely necessary if one wishes to make correct observations.

During my study of the behavior of oils and other liquid insulators, which I am still continuing, it has occurred to me to investigate the important effect discovered by Prof. J. J. Thomson. He announced some time ago that all bodies traversed by Roentgen radiations become conductors of electricity. I applied a sensitive resonance test to the investigation of this phenomenon in a manner pointed out in my earlier writings on high frequency currents. A secondary, preferably not in very close inductive relation to the primary circuit, was connected to the latter and to the ground, and the vibration through the primary was so adjusted that true resonance took place. As the secondary had a considerable number of turns, very small bodies attached to the free terminal produced considerable variations of potential on the latter. Placing a tube in a box of wood filled with oil and attaching it to the terminal, I adjusted the vibration through the primary so that resonance took place without the bulb radiating Roentgen rays to an appreciable extent. I then changed the conditions so that the bulb became very active in the production of the rays. The oil should have now, according to Prof. J. J. Thomson's statement, become a conductor and a very marked change in the vibration should have occurred. This was found not to be the case, so that we must see in the phenomenon discovered by J. J. Thomson only a further evidence that we have to deal here with streams of matter which, traversing the bodies, carry away electrical charges. But the bodies do not become conductors in the common acceptance of the term. The method I have followed is so delicate that a mistake is almost an impossibility.

AN INTERESTING FEATURE OF X-RAY RADIATIONS*

The following observations, made with bulbs emitting Roentgen radiations, may be of value in throwing additional light upon the nature of these radiations, as well as illustrating better properties already known. In the main these observations agree with the views which have forced themselves upon my mind from the outset, namely, that the rays consist of streams of minute material particles projected with great velocity. In numerous experiments I have found that the matter which, by impact within the bulb, causes the formation of the rays may come from either of the electrodes. Inasmuch as the latter are by continued use disintegrated to a marked degree, it seems more plausible to assume that the projected matter consists of parts of the electrodes themselves rather than of the residual gas. However, other observations, upon which I can not dwell at present, lead to this conclusion. The lumps of projected matter are by impact further disintegrated into particles so minute as to be able to pass through the walls of the bulb, or else they tear off such particles from the walls, or generally bodies, against which they are projected. At any rate, an impact and consequent shattering seems absolutely necessary for the production of Roentgen rays. The vibration, if there be any, is only that which is impressed by the apparatus, and the vibrations can only be longitudinal.

The principal source of the rays is invariably the place of first impact within the bulb, whether it be the anode, as in some forms of tube, or an inclosed insulated body, or the glass wall. When the matter thrown off from an electrode, after striking against an obstacle, is thrown against another body, as the wall of the bulb, for instance, the place of second impact is a very feeble source of the rays.

These and other facts will be better appreciated by referring to the annexed figure, in which a form of tube is shown used in a number of my experiments. The general form is that described on previous occasions. A single electrode *e,* consisting of a massive aluminium plate, is mounted on a conductor *c,* provided with a glass wrapping *w* as usual, and sealed in one of the ends of a straight tube *b,* about five centimetres in diameter and 30 centimetres long. The other end of the tube is blown out into a thin bulb of a slightly larger diameter, and near this end is supported on a glass stem *s* a funnel *f* of thin platinum sheet. In such bulbs I have used a number of different metals for impact with a view of increasing the intensity of the rays and also for the purpose of reflecting and concentrating them. Since, however, in a later contribution, Professor Roentgen has pointed out that platinum gives the most intense rays, I have used chiefly this metal, finding a marked increase in the effect upon the screen or sensitive plate. The particular object of the presently described construction was to ascertain whether the rays generated at the inner surface of the platinum funnel *f* would be brought to a focus outside of the bulb, and further, whether they would proceed in straight lines from that point. For this purpose the apex of the platinum cone was arranged to be about two centimetres outside of the bulb at *o.*

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* Electrical Review, July 8, 1896.

When the bulb was properly exhausted and set in action, the glass wall below the funnel *f* became strongly phosphorescent, but not uniformly, as there was a narrow ring *r r* on the periphery brighter than the rest, this ring being evidently due to the rays reflected from the platinum sheet.

Placing a fluorescent screen in contact or quite close to the glass wall below the funnel, the portion of the screen in the immediate neighborhood of the phosphorescent patch was brightly illuminated, the outlines being entirely indistinct. Receding now with the screen from the bulb, the strongly illuminated spot became smaller and the outlines sharper, until, when the point *o* was reached, the luminous part had dwindled down to a small point. Moving the screen a few millimetres beyond *o* caused a small dark spot to appear, which widened into a circle and became larger and larger in the same measure as the distance from the bulb was increased (see S), until, at a sufficiently

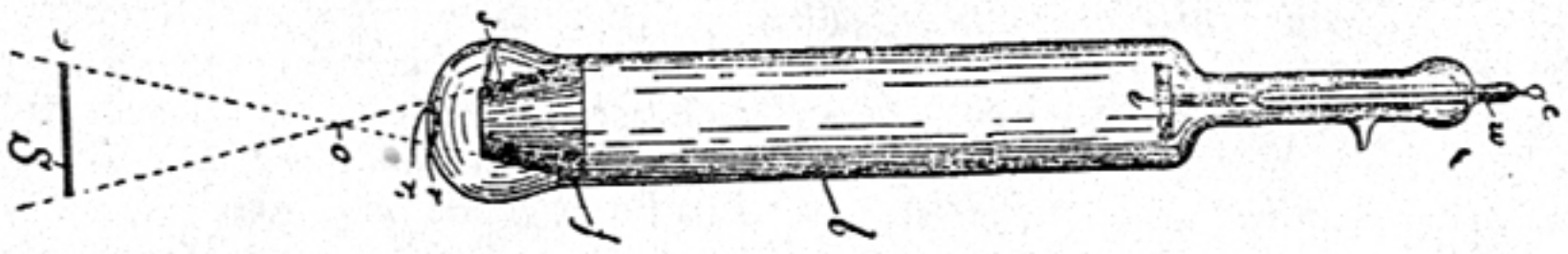

Diagram Illustrating The Experiment.

large distance, the dark circle covered the entire screen. This experiment illustrated in a beautiful way the propagation in straight lines, which Roentgen originally proved by pinhole photographs. But, besides this, an important point was noted; namely, that the fluorescent glass wall emitted practically no rays, whereas, had the platinum not been present, it would have been, under similar conditions, an efficient source of the rays, for the glass, even by weak excitation of the bulb, was strongly heated. I can only explain the absence of the radiation from the glass by assuming that the matter proceeding from the surface of the platinum sheet was already in a finely divided state when it reached the glass wall. A remarkable fact is, also, that, at least by a weak excitation of the bulb, the edges of the dark circle were very sharp, which speaks strongly against diffusion. By exciting the bulb very strongly, the background became brighter and the shadow S fainter, though it continued to be plainly visible even then.

From the preceding it is evident that, by a suitable construction of the bulb, the rays emanating from the latter may be concentrated upon any small area at some distance, and a practical advantage may be taken of this fact when producing impressions upon a plate or examining bodies by means of a fluorescent screen.

ROENTGEN RAYS OR STREAMS*

In the original report of his epochal discoveries, Roentgen expressed his conviction that the phenomena he observed were due to certain novel disturbances in the ether. This opinion deserves to be considered the more as it was probably formed in the first enthusiasm over the revelations, when the mind of the discoverer was capable of a much deeper insight into the nature of things.

It was known since long ago that certain dark radiations, capable of penetrating opaque bodies, existed, and when the rectilinear propagation, the action on a fluorescent screen and on a sensitive film was noted, an obvious and unavoidable inference was that the new radiations were transverse vibrations, similar to those known as light. On the other hand, it was difficult to resist certain arguments in favor of the less popular theory of material particles, especially as, since the researches of Lenard, it has become very probable that material streams, resembling the cathodic, existed in free air. Furthermore, I myself have brought to notice the fact that similar material streams — which were subsequently, upon Roentgen's announcement, found capable of producing impressions on a sensitive film — were obtainable in free air, even without the employment of a vacuum bulb, simply by the use of very high potentials, suitable for imparting to the molecules of the air or other particles a sufficiently high velocity. In reality, such puffs or jets of particles are formed in the vicinity of every highly charged conductor, the potential of which is rapidly varying, and I have shown that, unless they are prevented, they are fatal to every condenser or high-potential transformer, no matter how thick the insulation. They also render practically valueless any estimate of the period of vibration of an electro-magnetic system by the usual mode of calculation or measurement in a static condition in all cases in which the potential is very high and the frequency excessive.

It is significant that, with these and other facts before him, Roentgen inclined to the conviction that the rays he discovered were longitudinal waves of ether.

After a long and careful investigation, with apparatus excellently suited for the purpose, capable of producing impressions at great distances, and after examining the results pointed out by other experimenters, I have come to the conclusion which I have already intimated in my former contributions to your esteemed journal, and which I now find courage to pronounce without hesitation, that the original hypothesis of Roentgen will be confirmed in two particulars; first, in regard to the longitudinal character of the disturbances; second, in regard to the medium concerned in their propagation. The present expression of my views is made solely for the purpose of preserving a faithful record of what, to my mind, appears to be the true interpretation of these new and important manifestations of energy.

Recent observations of some dark radiations from novel sources by Becquerel and others, and certain deductions of Helmholtz, seemingly applicable to the explanation

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* Electrical Review, August 12, 1896.

of the peculiarities of the Roentgen rays, have given additional weight to the arguments on behalf of the theory of transverse vibrations, and accordingly this interpretation of the phenomena is held in favor. But this view is still of a purely speculative character, being, as it is at present, unsupported by any conclusive experiment. Contrarily, there is considerable experimental evidence that some matter is projected with great velocity from the bulbs, this matter being in all probability the only cause of the actions discovered by Roentgen.

There is but little doubt at present that a cathodic stream within a bulb is composed of small particles of matter, thrown off with great velocity from the electrode. The velocity probably attained is estimable, and fully accountable for the mechanical and heating effects produced by the impact against the wall or obstacle within the bulb. It is, furthermore, an accepted view that the projected lumps of matter act as inelastic bodies, similarly to ever so many small lead bullets. It can be easily shown that the velocity of the stream may be as much as 100 kilometers a second, or even more, at least in bulbs with a single electrode, in which the practicable vacua and potentials are much higher than in the ordinary bulbs with two electrodes. But, now, matter moving with such great velocity must surely penetrate great thicknesses of the obstruction in its path, if the laws of mechanical impact are at all applicable to a cathodic stream. I have presently so much familiarized myself with this view that, if I had no experimental evidence, I would not question the fact that some matter is projected through the thin wall of a vacuum tube. The exit from the latter is, however, the more likely to occur, as the lumps of matter must be shattered into still much smaller particles by the impact. From my experiments on reflection of the Roentgen rays, before reported, which, with powerful radiations, may be shown to exist under all angles of incidence, it appears that the lumps or molecules are indeed shattered into fragments or constituents so small as to make them lose entirely some physical properties possessed before the impact. Thus, the material composing the electrode, the wall of the bulb or obstruction of any kind placed within the latter, are of absolutely no consequence, except in so far as the intensity of the radiations is concerned. It also appears, as I have pointed out, that no further disintegration of the lumps is attendant upon a second impact. The matter composing the cathodic stream is, to all evidence, reduced to matter of some primary form, heretofore not known, as such velocities and such violent impacts have probably never been studied or even attained before these extraordinary manifestations were observed. Is it not possible that the very ether vortexes which, according to Lord Kelvin's ideal theory, compose the lumps, are dissolved, and that in the Roentgen phenomena we may witness a transformation of ordinary matter into ether? It is in this sense that, I think, Roentgen's first hypothesis will be confirmed. In such case there can be, of course, no question of waves other than the longitudinal assumed by him, only, in my opinion, the frequency must be very small — that of the electro-magnetic vibrating system — generally not more than a few millions a second. If such process of transformation does take place, it will be difficult, if not impossible, to determine the amount of energy represented in the radiations, and the statement that this amount is very small should be received with some caution.

As to the rays exhaustively studied by Lenard, which have proved to be the nucleus of these great realizations, I hold them to be true cathodic streams, projected through the wall of the tube. Their deflectibility by a magnet shows to my mind simply that they differ but little from those within the bulb. The lumps of matter are probably large and the velocity small as compared with that of the Roentgen rays. They should, however be capable in a minor degree of all the actions of the latter. These actions I consider to be purely mechanical and obtainable by other means. So, for instance, I think that if a gun loaded with mercury were fired through a thin board, the projected mercury vapor would cast a shadow of an object upon a film made especially sensitive

to mechanical impact, or upon a screen of material capable of being rendered fluorescent by such impact.

The following observations made by myself and others speak more or less for the existence of the streams of matter.

I — PHENOMENA OF EXHAUSTION

On this subject I have expressed myself on another occasion. It is only necessary to once more point out that the effect observed by me should not be confounded with that noted by Spottiswoode and Crookes. I explain the latter phenomenon as follows: The first fluorescence appearing when the current is turned on, is due to some organic matter almost always introduced in the bulb in the process of manufacture. A minute layer of such matter on the wall produces invariably this first fluorescence, and the latter never takes place when the bulb has been exhausted under application of a high degree of heat or when the organic matter is otherwise destroyed. Upon the disappearance of the first fluorescence the rarefaction increases slowly, this being a necessary result of particles being projected from the electrode and fastening themselves upon the wall. These particles absorb a large portion of the residual gas. The latter can be again freed by the application of heat to the bulb or otherwise. So much of the effects observed by these investigators. In the instance observed by myself, there must be actual expulsion of matter, and for this speak following facts: (a) the exhaustion is quicker when the glass is thin; (b) when the potential is higher; (c) when the discharges are more sudden; (d) when there is no obstruction within the bulb; (e) the exhaustion takes place quickest with an aluminum or platinum electrode, the former metal giving particles moving with greatest velocity, the latter particles of greatest weight; (f) the glass wall, when softened by the heat, does not collapse, but bulges outwardly; (g) the exhaustion takes place, in some cases, even if a small perceptible hole is pierced through the glass; (h) all causes tending to impart a greater velocity to the particles hasten the process of exhaustion.

II — RELATION BETWEEN OPACITY AND DENSITY

The important fact pointed out early by Roentgen and confirmed by subsequent research, namely, that a body is the more opaque to the rays the denser it is, can not be explained as satisfactorily under any other assumption as that of the rays being streams of matter, in which case such simple relation between opacity and density would necessarily exist. This relation is the more important in its bearing upon the nature of the rays, as it does not at all exist in light-giving vibrations, and should consequently not be found to so marked a degree and under *all conditions with vibrations,* presumably similar to and approximating in frequency the light vibrations.

III — DEFINITION OF SHADOWS ON SCREEN OR PLATE

When taking impressions or observing shadows while varying the intensity of the radiations, but maintaining all other conditions as nearly as possible alike, it is found that the employment of more intense radiations secures little, if any, advantage, as regards the definition of the details. At first it was thought that all there was needed was to produce very powerful rays. But the experience was disappointing, for, while I succeeded in producing rays capable of impressing a plate at distances of certainly not less than 30 metres, I obtained but slightly better results. There was one advantage in using such intense rays, and this was that the plate could be further

removed from the source, and consequently a better shadow was obtained. But otherwise nothing to speak of was gained. The screen in the dark box would be at times rendered so bright as to allow reading at some distance plainly, but the shadow was not more distinct for all that. In fact, often a very strong radiation gave a poorer impression than a weak one. Now, a fact which I have repeatedly observed and to which I attach great importance in this connection, is the following: When taking impressions at a small distance with a tube giving very intense rays, no shadow, unless a scarcely perceptible one, is obtained. Thus, for instance, the flesh and bones of the hand appear equally transparent. Increasing presently gradually the distance, it is found that the bones cast a shadow, while the flesh leaves no impression. The distance still increased, the shadow of the flesh appears, while that of the bones grows deeper, and in this neighborhood a place can be found at which the definition of the shadow is clearest. If the distance is still further continually increased, the detail is lost, and finally only a vague shadow is perceptible, showing apparently the outlines of the hand.

This often-noted fact disagrees entirely with any theory of transverse vibrations, but can be easily explained on the assumption of material streams. When the hand is near and the velocity of the stream of particles very great, both bone and flesh are easily penetrated, and the effect due to the difference in the retardation of the particles passing through the heterogeneous parts can not be observed. The screen can fluoresce only up to a certain limited intensity, and the film can be affected only to a certain small degree. When the distance is increased, or, what is equivalent, when the intensity of the radiation is reduced, the more resisting bones begin to throw the shadow first. Upon a further increase of the distance the flesh begins likewise to stop enough of the particles to leave a trace on the screen. But in all cases, at a certain distance, manifestly that which under the conditions of the experiment gives the greatest difference in the trajectories of the particles within *the range perceptible on the screen or film,* the clearest shadow is secured.

IV — THE RAYS ARE ALL OF ONE KIND

The preceding explains the apparent existence of rays of different kind; that is, of different rates of vibration, as it is asserted. In my opinion, the velocity and possibly the size of the particles both are different, and this fully accounts for the discordant results obtained in regard to the transparency of various bodies to these rays. I found, for example, in many cases that aluminum was less transparent than glass, and in some instances brass appeared to be very transparent as compared with other metallic bodies. Such observations showed that it was necessary, in making the comparison, to take rigorously equal thicknesses of the bodies and place them as closely together as possible. They also showed the fallacy of comparing results obtained with different bulbs.

V — ACTION ON THE FILMS

Many experiments with films of different thicknesses show that decidedly more detail is obtainable with a thick film than with a thin one. This appears to me to be a further evidence in support of the above views, as the result can be easily explained when considering the preceding remarks.

VI — THE BEHAVIOR OF VARIOUS BODIES IN REFLECTING THE RAYS,

on which I have previously dwelt, will, if verified by other experimenters, leave no room for a doubt that the radiations are streams of some matter, or possibly of ether, as before observed.

VII — THE ENTIRE ABSENCE OF REFRACTION

and other features possessed by the light waves has, since Roentgen's announcement, not yet been satisfactorily explained. A trace at least of such an effect would be found if the rays were transverse vibrations.

VIII — THE DISCHARGE OF CONDUCTORS

by the rays shows, in so far as I have been able to follow the researches of others, that the electrical charge is taken off by the bodily carriers. It is also found that the opacity plays an important part, and the observations are mostly in accord with the above views.

IX — THE SOURCE OF THE RAYS

is, I find, always the place of the first impact of the cathodic stream, a second impact producing little or no rays. This fact would be difficult to account for unless streams of matter are assumed to exist.

X — SHADOWS IN SPACE OUTSIDE OF THE BULB

An almost crucial test of the existence of material streams is afforded by the formation of shadows in space at a distance from the bulb, to which I have called attention quite recently. I will presently refer to my preceding communication on this subject, and will only point out that such shadows could not be formed under the conditions described, except by streams of matter.

XI — ALL BODIES ARE TRANSPARENT TO VERY STRONG RAYS

Experiments establish this fact beyond any doubt. With very intense radiations, I obtain, easily, impressions through what may be considered a great thickness of any metal. It is impossible to explain this on any theory of transverse vibrations. We can show how one or other body might allow the rays to pass through, but such explanations are not applicable to *all* bodies without exception. On the contrary, assuming material streams, such a result is unavoidable.

A great many other observations and facts might be added to the above, as further evidence in support of the above views. I have noted certain peculiarities of bodies obstructing a cathodic stream within the bulb. I have observed that the same rays are produced at all degrees of exhaustion and using bodies of vastly different physical properties, and have found a number of features in regard to the pressure, the vacuum, the residual gas, the material of the electrode, etc., all of which observations are more or less in accord with what I have stated before. I hope, however, that there is enough in the present lines to enlist the attention of others.

ON THE ROENTGEN STREAMS.*

The following lines may contain some useful information for physicists and physicians. Those who, in the exercise of their professional duties are applying the discoveries of Roentgen to the relief of the suffering by determining the position of foreign objects or ascertaining the condition of local troubles of malformations in the organism, are apt to be disappointed in many instances. While it is perfectly easy to find the position of a foreign object in the head, neck and all soft tissues of the body, and detect some far gone trouble in the lungs, often the location of even such a large and opaque object as a bullet, when imbedded in certain bony parts of the trunk of the patient, may be attended with difficulties. Success will be invariably attained if the suggestions which are given below, and which are the outcome of a number of observations of such cases, are strictly followed.

In order to make the present statements self-contained and more useful, I deem it of advantage to say a few words in regard to the Roentgen rays. According to all evidences so far obtained by me, I entertain the view, which I have expressed on other occasions, that these rays are formed by streams of some matter projected with great velocity, and generally intermittently, from the walls of the tube. The intermittent character is only due to this feature of the apparatus usually employed for the production of the rays; but the oscillatory or intermittent discharge is not absolutely necessary, as I have produced unidirectional currents of high tension which are likewise capable of generating strong rays, and as a static machine may be used with a like result. The mode of formation of these rays or streams is, for the present purposes, of little importance. The small particles within the bulb, which are the original cause, may be ions, formed by a process of electrolysis, or they may be comparatively larger particles of the electrode, or perhaps molecules of the residual gas. At any rate, it is probable that the particles are very minute, and that, therefore, the velocities of the cathodic streams within the vessel are such and the impacts so violent as to cause a further disintegration of the cathodic matter to state probably never before studied by physicists. We may have to deal, as I have already suggested, with an actual breaking up of the ether-vortexes, which, according to Lord Kelvin's theory, compose the material particles, or we may be confronted with a dissolution of matter into some unknown primary form, the Akasa of the old Vedas. Experiments show that this matter is reflected, sometimes very well, sometimes poorly; but in all cases the various metals behave in a curious manner, which I have studied, and the results obtained, though probably not free of error, because of the great difficulties in getting an exact estimate in such an investigation, were, nevertheless, sufficiently positive as to lead me to the conviction that the same medium or element which is concerned in the setting up of the electro motive tension between metals in contact is present in the streams of Roentgen. It might have been proper to say; in the spirit of more modern views on contact electricity, that these streams

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* Electrical Review, December 1, 1896.

are formed by ether, but I have preferred to use the term "primary matter," for, although the expression "ether" conveys a perfectly definite idea to the scientific mind, there exists, nevertheless, much vagueness as to the structure of this medium. The matter projected is not revealed by spectral analysis, and it does not seem to produce any appreciable mechanical nor even heating effects, nor is it deflected by a magnet, all of which facts tend to show that it can not be composed of molecules of any known substance. The streams exercise a powerful action upon a photographic plate or fluorescent screen, but I look upon these results as obvious consequences of the energetic impact.

Of the various more or less plausible views in regard to the formation of these streams outside of the vessel, the simplest, to my mind, is to assume an actual projection through the walls of the bulb of the disintegrated cathodic matter. Granted that there are particles sufficiently small within the bulb, then all velocities, up to many thousands of kilometers per second, are not only possible, but also probable; and, even if the particles would not be further disintegrated by the impact against the wall or other comparatively opaque body within the bulb, they surely would penetrate through great thicknesses of most substances. My experiments in this direction have shown that all the disintegration is practically accomplished in the first impact against the more or less impenetrable obstacle within the bulb, the second impact having seemingly little effect, as might be inferred from well established mechanical principles. I have also found that the place of first and most energetic impact, be it the anode, cathode or wall of the vessel, is invariably the principal source of the rays or streams. Again, quite in accordance with mechanical principles, the penetrative power of the streams is the greater the more complete the disintegration. Thus, for instance, rays which have traversed thick opaque objects, and are presumably further disintegrated, pass more freely through dense substances. An observation to this effect has likewise been made by Professor Wright, who was the first to publish definite results in the United States. I find that bulbs with thick walls give rays of greater penetrating power. It should be, of course, understood that I do not mean by this a greater outward effect. It is principally the above fact which makes it appear more probable that the matter projected is not a homogeneous stream, but consists of particles of varied magnitude moving with different velocities, for, were the former the case, the penetrative power would depend chiefly on the velocity. In the practical use of the Roentgen streams it would, therefore, seem very important to find a method of filtering and rendering them homogeneous, for only by such a method can we hope to obtain exact results in their investigation. Streams of perfectly uniform velocity and character, if produced, would no doubt be more suitable for the purposes of research.

Since the disintegration of the electrodes, especially if they are of aluminum, is so slow that no appreciable diminution of the weight results even after long use; it follows that the matter conveyed by the Roentgen streams is so minute as to escape detection. Some bulbs, which I have used for a number of months, showed that the bombarded spot of the glass was entirely permeated with particles of the aluminum electrode, but it would probably require years of constant use to accumulate any appreciable amount of matter outside. Referring to a tube with an electrode of aluminum, it is a noteworthy fact that, if properly managed, it does not impair in quality, but, on the contrary, seems to improve; whereas, when a platinum electrode is used, the life of the bulb is very short, owing to the conductor being deposited on the walls, which deposit, as I have explained on another occasion, renders difficult the passage of the discharge. Namely, as soon as some of the projected particles strike the conducting layer, they impart a similar electrification to the latter, and a repulsion is exerted upon the particles following. The result is an apparent increase in the resistance of the tube. The above defect of the platinum electrode, despite of its effectiveness, must, in my opinion, lead to its abandonment.

It has been suggested that the Roentgen rays may be due simply to a propagation of electro-static stress; but, on this assumption, it is difficult to conceive how rays could be produced in instances when the glass wall is at a high temperature and consequently conducting, or when the impact plate or inclosure is of metal and connected to the ground. Stokes has recently considered the possibility that the impact of the cathodic stream on one side of a partition might give rise to a molecular motion on the other side without necessarily there being a transit through the partition. According to this view, which I have likewise considered some time ago, it would appear that the material streams might start on the outer side of the wall of the tube, in which case only the air would be responsible for the effects, and the futility of a spectral analysis test would be in a certain measure accounted for. But is it not more probable to assume an actual passage and shattering of matter as all evidences point in this direction? Assuming that, as Professor Stokes now thinks it probable, the disturbance is non-periodic and still capable of producing effects characteristic of transverse vibrations of extremely high frequency, it seems to me a serious question whether, the old Newtonian views on light should not be reconsidered rather than the conclusion drawn that the novel manifestations observed by Roentgen are due to transverse vibrations, when there is no experimental evidence to this effect, nor even a satisfactory explanation found how the cathodic impact might give rise to waves of a higher frequency than those of light.

Being, as I am, firmly convinced of the existence of material streams, I look upon the unsuccess of the attempts of demonstrating an actual transit of matter as being due to either the minuteness of the amount or else to the state of the matter, but rather, to the former cause, as all peculiarities of the streams point in this direction. In my opinion, no experimenter need be deterred from carrying on an investigation of the Roentgen rays for fear of poisonous or generally deleterious action, for it seems reasonable to conclude that it would take centuries to accumulate enough of such matter as to interfere seriously with the process of life of a person. But I look confidently to the demonstration of actions of a purely qualitative nature. For instance, despite of the danger of such an assertion by encouragement which might be given to quacks I would say that I expect with the utmost confidence the demonstration of a germicidal action. In addition to the physiological effects, to which I have early drawn attention, I have more recently observed with powerful tubes that a sensation of pain is produced in the forehead above the eyes just as soon as the current is turned on. This sensation is very similar to that one frequently experiences when stepping from a dark room into the glare of bright sunlight, or when walking for some time over fields of fresh-fallen snow.

As to the hurtful actions on the skin, which have been variously reported, I note that they are misinterpreted. These effects have been known to me for some time, but I have been unable, on account of pressing matters, to dwell on the subject. They are not due to the Roentgen rays, but merely to the ozone generated in contact with the skin. Nitrous acid may also be responsible, to a small extent. The ozone, when abundantly produced, attacks the skin and many organic substances most energetically, the action being no doubt heightened by the heat and moisture of the skin. After exposing the hand, for instance, for some time, the skin loses its elasticity, which causes a tension and pain, and subsequently an inflammation and blistering. This occurs mostly only at short range, but may be produced by a single terminal bulb, or generally by a very highly exhausted bulb, in which the terminals act independently, at greater distance. Owing to this, I have always taken the precaution, when getting impressions with the rays, to guard the person by a screen made of aluminum wires which is connected to the ground, preferably through a condenser. The radical means, however, of preventing such actions is to make impossible the access of the air to the skin

while exposing, as, for instance, by immersing in oil. As this would be inconvenient in most cases, a metallic screen should be resorted to. The action of the ozone on some substances, when placed near the bulb in such a way that the gas is generated on their surfaces, is so powerful that the substances are practically destroyed in a few minutes. When a wire heavily insulated with rubber is connected to the terminal of a high-frequency coil, sometimes an exposure of barely a minute is sufficient to completely wreck the rubber insulation. There are certain commercial insulating compounds which are even more quickly destroyed, but which I will not enumerate. because of a possible disadvantage to the manufacturers. Gutta-percha, beeswax and paraffine stand the attack very well, and such wires should be used with high-frequency coils. This powerful action of the ozone was observed by me first about two years ago, when performing an experiment which was shown to many persons in my laboratory. The experiment consisted of charging a person, standing on an insulated stand, with a potential approximating one and one-half million volts, which was alternated several hundred thousand times a second. Under such conditions luminous streams break out on all parts of the body, especially abundantly on the feet, hands, hair, nose and ears. I subjected myself a number of times to this experiment, which seemed to offer no other danger except the possible rupture of a blood vessel, if the skin was very dry and non-conducting. I then noted on myself and others after effects resembling much those attributed to the Roentgen rays. With currents produced by perfected electrical oscillators, such as were described in the Electrical Review, September 30, 1896, the production of the ozone is so abundant that it is sufficient to merely turn on the current for a few seconds and ozonize strongly the atmosphere of a large hall. These currents are also capable of bringing about chemical combinations, of which the chief is that of the nitrogen with the oxygen of the atmosphere, and an immense possibility, which I have been following up for a long time, is opened up; namely, the combination of the nitrogen of the atmosphere on an industrial scale by practically no other means than mechanical power. If merely fertilizers of the soil would be manufactured in this manner, the benefits to humanity derived therefrom would be incalculable. From the above named action of the ozone, it follows that the experimenter should use the indicated precaution, for while ozone in small quantities is a most beneficial disinfectant, when generated in large quantities it is not free of danger.

It is an unpleasant duty to say on this occasion a few words on the subject of "making the blind see" by means of the Roentgen rays. This sensational topic has been given a wide circulation in the journals. Is it not cruel to raise such hopes when there is so little ground for it? For, first of all, the rays are not demonstrated to be transverse vibrations. If they were, we would have to find means for refracting them to make possible the projection of a sufficiently small image upon the retina. As it is, only a shadow of a very small object can be projected. What possible good can result from the application of these rays to such purposes? The shape of the small object might eventually be recognized by impressing the retina, but the sense of touch is more than sufficient to convey such impressions. Luminous sensations are well known to be excited in two ways; namely, by mechanical shock and electrical transmission. Both of these, I think, are present in the Roentgen streams, and hence such an effect on the optic nerve might be expected. I may say, however, that I can not confirm some of the experiments reported. For instance, when a hand is put before the closed eyes it is easy to distinguish the shadow, much the same as before the light of a candle; but when the tube is closed, and all light from the same excluded, I fail to get such an impression. The latter is, therefore, chiefly due to ordinary light, or else my tubes act differently from those experimented with by others. It may be proper to recall here that in ordinary bright sunlight, especially in the southern climates, it is easy to distinguish the shadow of objects, and even their rough outlines, with the eyes shut.

Proceeding on the assumption that we have in reality to deal with material streams, it is important to inquire which are the best conditions to be maintained when taking impressions with the sensitive screen or plate. First, the experimenter will easily observe that there are two causes which, with a given bulb and coil, tend to increase the intensity of the impressions. One of these may be said to lie in the bulb, the other in the coil. The latter, being most generally made of many turns of fine wire, is very sensitive to changes in the capacity of bodies attached to its terminals. The capacity of these bodies, therefore, in such a coil largely determines the difference of potential. At a certain degree of exhaustion this capacity assumes such a value that the pressure rises to a maximum, this tending to give the highest velocity to the cathodic stream, and, consequently, to give rise to the most intense rays. But at that degree of exhaustion it may happen, and usually does happen, that the cathodic streams are not most abundant. To produce the best result it is necessary that both of these causes should be made to cooperate by a careful proportioning of the dimensions of the bulb, which, in practice, is very difficult, inasmuch as the experimenter has to avail himself of commercial bulbs which may or may not be best suitable for his coil. This simple consideration shows the great advantage of the use of a coil which contains no fine wire and is capable of giving a heavy current through the secondary far in excess of what even the largest bulb requires.

Assuming the physician has learned how to manipulate his apparatus to best advantage, he will next notice that, to secure the clearest definition, he will have to maintain a certain pressure on the terminals of the tube, dependent chiefly on the distance and degree of opacity of the object investigated. It goes without saying that the definition is the better the smaller the spot from which the rays are emanating, but this is true only when impressions are taken at very small distances. When the distances are large, it is a disadvantage to use a too small radiating surface, as then the density is diminished to such a degree that the action is too weak. Discarding this consideration, it is clear that, if the rays are intense, the more opaque portions of the body are likewise penetrated and much detail is lost, whereas, when the rays are less intense, the impression might be altogether too weak to bring out sufficient detail.

To illustrate in a popular manner the best way to proceed, I shall avail myself of a simple illustration. Suppose that there would be imbedded between two panels of cloth a foreign object, such as a coin, and it is desired to locate it. We may accomplish this by placing behind the cloth a cardboard, for instance, and then firing from a certain distance a load of fine shot through the cloth in the region where the coin is supposed to be located. The shot will penetrate the cloth on all points except on the place where the coin is located, and on the cardboard behind, this place will be plainly indicated by the absence of the marks. Exactly in this way we proceed in applying the Roentgen rays to the location of such a body. Roentgen gave us a gun to fire — a wonderful gun, indeed, projecting missiles of a thousandfold greater penetrative power than that of a cannon ball, and carrying them probably to distances of many miles, with velocities not producible in any other way we know of. These missiles are so small that we may fire them through our tissues for days, weeks, months and years, apparently, without any hurtful consequence. Instead of the cardboard to indicate the path of the missiles, he gave us what is properly called a Roentgen screen, which becomes luminous on all places where it is hit by the missiles. Where the latter are prevented from hitting the screen by the intervention of the opaque body, the screen does not glow and we observe the shadow of the object. It is simple enough to project the shadow of an object in this way but when it is required to show the finer detail of the structure of the object, the difficulty begins. It will at once appear that, to produce such a result to best advantage, two conditions will have to be more or less realized. Firstly, the screen should be composed of such material that it is capable of becoming luminous by the faintest impact; and, secondly, the missiles should all be of uniform size, and should

move with uniform velocity. Neither of these two conditions has so far been realized in practice, for all the bodies we know require a violent impact to become luminous, and no way has been found as yet to produce a uniformity in velocity and magnitude of the supposed projectiles. But a little thought leads immediately to the conclusion that there will be a certain velocity of the missiles which will give, under all conditions, the best definition. This velocity is easily ascertained by trial. Evidently the definition will be best when the bullets which pass through the densest parts of the body strike the screen so feebly as to not make it light up, whereas, those passing through portions of slightly smaller density hit it sufficiently strong as to make it light up feebly. The more sensitive the screen to impact, that is, the weaker an impact is required to make the screen light up, the more detail will be revealed. It therefore follows that, in the application of the Roentgen rays, not the body which fluoresces strongest, but the one which is most sensitive, is best suited for finer work.

The above considerations have led me to adopt the following procedure, which, in practice, has proved very successful. The Roentgen screen is first applied to the body to be investigated, the pressure at the terminals of the tube being very much reduced. The pressure is then slowly and gradually raised. It will be presently observed that, at a certain pressure, the shadow of the object examined is clearest. But as the vacuum is increasing, the pressure generally rises, and the image gets blurred in spite of the screen getting much brighter. Just as soon as the clearness is slightly diminished, the experimenter should for a few moments reverse the current, lowering a little the vacuum in this manner. The current being again given the direction it had at first, namely, that which causes a slow and steady increase of the vacuum, the shadow gets again clear, and by such easy manipulation the best result may be secured. An additional advantage, however, is gained, because the frequent reversals produce a brighter phosphorescence of the screen. When taking a photograph, the bulb should be watched through the screen and the switches manipulated in the above manner.

To give a practical example of the effectiveness of this procedure, I need only mention one of the instances which have come to my notice. A few months ago I investigated the case of Mr Cornelius Mack, of Watertown, Mass. Mr. Mack, while performing his duties many years ago, was struck by a bullet which lodged somewhere in the chest and could not be located. I apply the screen vainly a number of times for although the streams penetrated the body with such ease as to make the screen behind appear bluish white, and reveal all the bones of the body, I could not observe the missile. I then resorted to the above indicated means, and immediately and easily the exact location of the projectile, between the shoulder blade and one of the ribs, was ascertained and the bullet successfully extracted.

ON THE HURTFUL ACTIONS OF LENARD AND ROENTGEN TUBES*

The rapidly extending use of the Lenard and Roentgen tubes or Crookes bulbs as implements of the physician, or as instruments of research in laboratories, makes it desirable, particularly in view of the possibility of certain hurtful actions on the human tissues, to investigate the nature of these influences, to ascertain the conditions under which they are liable to occur and — what is most important for the practitioner — to render all injury impossible by the observance of certain rules and the employment of unfailing remedies.

As I have stated in a previous communication (see Electrical Review of December 2, 1896) no experimenter need be deterred from using freely the Roentgen rays for fear of a poisonous or deleterious action, and it is entirely wrong to give room to expressions of a kind such as may tend to impede the progress and create a prejudice against an already highly beneficial and still more promising discovery; but it can not be denied that it is equally uncommendable to ignore dangers now when we know that, under certain circumstances, they actually exist. I consider it the more necessary to be aware of these dangers, as I foresee the coming into general use of novel apparatus, capable of developing rays of incomparably greater power. In scientific laboratories the instruments are usually in the hands of persons skilled in their manipulation and capable of approximately estimating the magnitude of the effects, and the omission of necessary precautions is, in the present state of our knowledge, not so much to be apprehended; but the physicians, who are keenly appreciating the immense benefits derived from the proper application of the new principle, and the numerous amateurs who are fascinated by the beauty of the novel manifestations, who are all passionately bent upon experimentation in the newly opened up fields, but many of whom are naturally not armed with the special knowledge of the electrician — all of these are much in need of reliable information from experts, and for these chiefly the following lines are written. However, in view of the still incomplete knowledge of these rays, I wish the statements which follow to be considered as devoid of authoritativeness, other than that which is based on the conscientiousness of my study and the faith in the precision of my senses and observations.

Ever since Professor Roentgen's discovery was made known I have carried on investigations in the directions indicated by him, and with perfected apparatus, producing rays of much greater intensity than it was possible to obtain with the usual appliances. Commonly, my bulbs were capable of showing the shadow of a hand on a phosphorescent screen at distances of 40 or 50 feet, or even more, and to the actions of these bulbs myself and several of my assistants were exposed for hours at a time, and although the exposures took place every day, not the faintest hurtful action was noted — as long as certain precautions were taken. On the contrary, be it a coincidence, or an effect of the rays, or the result of some secondary cause present in the operation of the bulbs —

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* Electrical Review, May 5, 1897.

as, for example, the generation of ozone — my own health, and that of two persons who were daily under the influence of the rays, more or less, has materially improved, and, whatever be the reason, it is a fact that a troublesome cough with which I was constantly afflicted has entirely disappeared, a similar improvement being observed on another person.

In getting the photographic impressions or studying the rays with a phosphorescent screen, I employed a plate of thin aluminum sheet or a gauze of aluminum wires, which was interposed between the bulb and the person, and connected to the ground directly or through a condenser. I adopted this precaution because it was known to me, a long time before, that a certain irritation of the skin is caused by very strong streamers, which, mostly at small distance, are formed on the body of a person through the electrostatic influence of a terminal of alternating high potential. I found that the occurrence of these streamers and their hurtful consequence was completely prevented by the employment of a conducting object, as a sheet of wire gauze placed and connected as described. It was observed, however, that the injurious effects mentioned did not seem to diminish gradually with the distance from the terminal, but ceased abruptly, and I could give no other explanation for the irritation of the skin which would be as plausible as that which I have expressed; namely, that the effect was due to ozone, which was abundantly produced. The latter peculiarity mentioned was also in agreement with this view, since the generation of ozone ceases abruptly at a definite distance from the terminal, making it evident that a certain intensity of action is absolutely required, as in a process of electrolytic decomposition.

In carrying further my investigations, I gradually modified the apparatus in several ways, and immediately I had opportunities to observe hurtful influences following the exposures. Inquiring now what changes I had introduced, I found that I had made three departures from the plan originally followed; First, the aluminum screen was not used; second, a bulb was employed which, instead of aluminum, contained platinum, either as electrode or impact plate; and third, the distances at which the exposures took place were smaller than usual.

It did not require a long time to ascertain that the interposed aluminum sheet was a very effective remedy against injury, for a hand could be exposed for a long time behind it without the skin being reddened, which otherwise invariably and very quickly occurred. This fact impressed me with the conviction that, whatever the nature of the hurtful influences, it was in a large measure dependent either on an electrostatic action, or electrification, or secondary effects resulting therefrom, such as are attendant to the formation of streamers. This view afforded an explanation why an observer could watch a bulb for any length of time, as long as he was holding the hand in front of the body, as in examining with a fluorescent screen, with perfect immunity to all parts of his body, with the exception of the hand. It likewise explained why burns were produced in some instances on the opposite side of the body, adjacent to the photographic plate, whereas portions on the directly exposed part of the body, which were much nearer to the bulb, and consequently subjected to by far stronger rays, remained unaffected. It also made it easy to understand why the patient experienced a prickling sensation on the exposed part of the body whenever an injurious action took place. Finally, this view agreed with the numerous observations that the hurtful actions occurred when air was present, clothing, however thick, affording no protection, while they practically ceased when a layer of a fluid, quite easily penetrated by the rays, but excluding all contact of the air with the skin, was used as a preventive.

Following, now, the second line of investigation, I compared bulbs containing aluminum only with those in which platinum was used besides, ordinarily as impact body, and soon there were enough evidences on hand to dispel all doubt as to the latter metal being by far the more injurious. In support of this statement, one of the

experiences may be cited which, at the same time, may illustrate the necessity — of taking proper precautions when operating bulbs of very high power. In order to carry out comparative tests, two tubes were constructed of an improved Lenard pattern, in size and most other respects alike. Both contained a concave cathode or reflector of nearly two inches in diameter, and both were provided with an aluminum cap or window. In one of the tubes the cathodic focus was made to coincide with the center of the cap, in the other the cathodic stream was concentrated upon a platinum wire supported on a glass stem axially with the tube a little in front of the window, and in each case the metal of the latter was thinned down in the central portion to such an extent as to be barely able to withstand the inward air pressure. In studying the action of the tubes, I exposed one hand to that containing aluminum only, and the other to the tube with the platinum wire. On turning on the former tube, I was surprised to observe that the aluminum window emitted a clear note, corresponding to the rhythmical impact of the cathodic stream. Placing the hand quite near the window, I felt distinctly that something warm was striking it. The sensation was unmistakable, and, quite apart from the warmth felt, differed very much from that prickling feeling produced by streamers or minute sparks. Next I examined the tube with the platinum wire. No sound was emitted by the aluminum window, all the energy of the impact being seemingly spent on the platinum wire, which became incandescent, or else the matter composing the cathodic stream was so far disintegrated that the thin metal sheet offered no material obstruction to its passage. If big lumps are hurled against a wire netting with large meshes, there is considerable pressure exerted against the netting; if, on the contrary — for illustration — the lumps are very small as compared with the meshes, the pressure might not be manifest. But, although the window did not vibrate, I felt, nevertheless, again, and distinctly, that something was impinging against the hand, and the sensation of warmth was stronger than in the previous case. In the action on the screen there was apparently no difference between the two tubes, both rendering it very bright, and the definition of the shadows was the same, as far as it was possible to judge. I had looked through the screen at the second tube a few times only when something detracted my attention, and it was not until about 20 minutes later, when I observed that the hand exposed to it was much reddened and swollen. Thinking that it was due to some accidental injury, I turned again to the examination of the platinum tube, thrusting the same hand close to the window, and now I felt instantly a sensation of pain, which became more pronounced when the hand was placed repeatedly near the aluminum window. A peculiar feature was that the pain appeared to be seated, not at the surface, but deep in the tissues of the hand, or rather in the bones. Although the aggregate exposure was certainly not more than half a minute, I had to suffer severe pain for a few days afterward, and some time later I observed that all the hair was destroyed and that the nails on the injured hand had grown anew.

The bulb containing no platinum was now experimented with, more care being taken, but soon its comparative harmlessness was manifest, for, while it reddened the skin, the injury was not nearly as severe as with the other tube. The valuable experiences thus gained were: The evidence of something hot striking the exposed member; the pain *instantly* felt; the injury produced *immediately* after the exposure, and the increased violence due, in all probability, to the presence of the platinum.

Some time afterward I observed other remarkable actions at very small distances from powerful Lenard tubes. For instance, the hand being held near the window only for a few seconds, the skin seems to become tight, or else the muscles are stiffened, for some resistance is experienced in closing the fist, but upon opening and closing it repeatedly the sensation disappears, apparently no ill effect remaining. I have, furthermore, observed a decided influence on the nasal discharge organs similar to

the effects of a cold just contracted. But the most interesting observation in this respect is the following: When such a powerful bulb is watched for some time, the head of the observer being brought very close, he soon after that experiences a sensation so peculiar that no one will fail to notice it when once his attention is called to it, it being almost as positive as touch. If one imagines himself looking at something like a cartridge, for instance, in close and dangerous proximity, and just about to explode, he will get a good idea of the sensation produced, only, in the case of the cartridge, one can not render himself an account where the feeling exactly resides, for it seems to extend all over the body, this indicating that it comes from a general awareness of danger resulting from previous and manifold experiences, and not from the anticipation of an unpleasant impression directly upon one of the organs, as the eye or the ear; but, in the case of the Lenard bulb, one can at once, and with precision, locate the sensation; it is in the head. Now, this observation might not be of any value except, perhaps, in view of the peculiarity and acuteness of the feeling, were it not that exactly the same sensation is produced when working for some time with a noisy spark gap, or, in general, when exposing the ear to sharp noises or explosions. Since it seems impossible to imagine how the latter could cause such a sensation in any other way except by directly impressing the organs of hearing, I conclude that a Roentgen or Lenard tube, working in perfect silence as it may, nevertheless produces violent explosions or reports and concussions, which, though they are inaudible, take some material effect upon the bony structure of the head. Their inaudibility may be sufficiently explained by the well founded assumption that not the air, but some finer medium, is concerned in their propagation.

But it was in following up the third line of inquiry into the nature of these hurtful actions, namely, in studying the influence of distance, that the most important fact was unearthed. To illustrate it popularly, I will say that the Roentgen tube acts exactly like a source of intense heat. If one places the hand near to a red-hot stove, he may be instantly injured. If he keeps the hand at a certain small distance, he may be able to withstand the rays for a few minutes or more, and may still be injured by prolonged exposure; but if he recedes only a little farther, where the heat is slightly less, he may withstand the heat in comfort and any length of time without receiving any injury, the radiations at that distance being too weak to seriously interfere with the life process of the skin. This is absolutely the way such a bulb acts. Beyond a certain distance no hurtful effect whatever is produced on the skin, no matter *how long* the exposure. The character of the burns is also such as might be expected from a source of high heat. I have maintained, in all deference to the opinions of others, that those who have likened the effects on the skin and tissues to sunburns have misinterpreted them. There is no similarity in this respect, except in so far as the reddening and peeling of the skin is concerned, which may result from innumerable causes. The burns, when slight, rather resemble those people often receive when working close to a strong fire. But when the injury is severe, it is in all appearances like that received from contact with fire or from a red-hot iron. There may be no period of incubation at all, as is evident from the foregoing remarks, the rays taking effect immediately, not to say instantly. In a severe case the skin gets deeply colored and blackened in places, and ugly, ill-foreboding blisters form; thick layers come off, exposing the raw flesh, which, for a time, discharges freely. Burning pain, feverishness and such symptoms are of course but natural accompaniments. One single injury of this kind, in the abdominal region, to a dear and zealous assistant — the only accident that ever happened to any one but myself in all my laboratory experience — I had the misfortune to witness. It occurred before all these and other experiences were gained, following directly an exposure of five minutes at the fairly safe distance of 11 inches to a very highly-charged platinum tube, the protecting aluminum screen having been infortunately omitted, and it was such as to fill me with the gravest apprehensions. Fortunately, frequent warm baths, free

application of vaseline, cleaning and general bodily care soon repaired the ravages of the destructive agent, and I breathed again freely. Had I known more than I did of these injurious actions, such unfortunate exposure would not have been made; had I known less than I did, it might have been made at a smaller distance, and a serious, perhaps irremediable, injury might have resulted.

I am using the first opportunity to comply with the bitter duty of recording the accident. I hope that others will do likewise, so that the most complete knowledge of these dangerous actions may soon be acquired. My apprehensions led me to consider, with keener interest than I would have felt otherwise, what the probabilities were in such a case of the internal tissues being seriously injured. I came to the very comforting conclusion that, no matter what the rays are ultimately recognized to be, practically all their destructive energy must spend itself on the surface of the body, the internal tissues being, in all probability, safe, unless the bulb would be placed in very close proximity to the skin, or else, that rays of far greater intensity than now producible were generated. There are many reasons why this should be so, some of which will appear clear from my foregoing statements referring to the nature of the hurtful agencies, but I may be able to cite new facts in support of this view. A significant feature of the case reported may be mentioned. It was observed that on three places, which were covered by thick bone buttons, the skin was entirely unaffected, while it was entirely destroyed under each of the small holes in the buttons. Now, it was impossible for the rays, as investigation showed, to reach these points of the skin in straight lines drawn from the bulb, and this would seem to indicate that not all the injury was due to the rays or radiations under consideration, which unmistakably propagate in straight lines, but that, at least in part, concomitant causes were responsible. A further experimental demonstration of this fact may be obtained in the following manner: The experimenter may excite a bulb to a suitable and rather small degree, so as to illuminate the fluorescent screen to a certain intensity at a distance of, say, seven inches. He may expose his hand at that distance, and the skin will be reddened after a certain duration of exposure. He may now force the bulb up to a much higher power, until, at a distance of 14 inches, the screen is illuminated even stronger than it was before at half that distance. The rays are now evidently stronger at the greater distance, and yet he may expose the hand a very long time, and it is safe to assert that he will not be injured. Of course, it is possible to bring forth arguments which might deprive the above demonstration of force. So, it might be stated, that the actions on the screen or photographic plate do not give us an idea as to the density and other quantitative features of the rays, these actions being entirely of a qualitative character. Suppose the rays are formed by streams of material particles, as I believe, it is thinkable that it might be of no particular consequence, in so far as the visible impression on the screen or film is concerned, whether a trillion of particles per square millimetre strike the sensitive layer or only a million, for example; but with the actions on the skin it is different; these must surely and very materially depend on the quantity of the streams.

As soon as the before-mentioned fact was recognized, namely, that beyond a certain distance even the most powerful tubes are incapable of producing injurious action, no matter how long the exposure may last, it became important to ascertain the safe distance. Going over all my previous experiences, I found that, very frequently, I have had tubes which at a distance of 12 feet, for illustration, gave a strong impression of the chest of a person with an exposure of a few minutes, and many times persons have been subjected to the rays from these tubes at a distance of from 18 to 24 inches, the time of exposure varying from 10 to 45 minutes, and never the faintest trace of an injurious action was observed. With such tubes I have even made long exposures at distances of 14 inches, always, of course, through a thin sheet or wire gauze of aluminum connected to the ground, and, in each case, observing the precaution that the metal would

not give any spark when the person was touching it with the hand, as it might sometimes be when the electrical vibration is of extremely high frequency, in which case a ground connection, through a condenser of proper capacity, should be resorted to. In all these instances bulbs containing only aluminum were used, and I therefore still lack sufficient data to form an exact idea of what distance would have been safe with a platinum tube. From the case previously cited, we see that a grave injury resulted at a distance of 11 inches, but I believe that, had the protecting screen been used, the injury, if any, would have been very slight. Taking all my experiences together, I am convinced that no serious injury can result if the distance is greater than 16 inches and the impression is taken in the manner I have described.

Having been successful in a number of lines of inquiry pertaining to this new department of science, I am able at present to form a broader view of the actions of the bulbs, which, I hope, will soon assume a quite definite shape. For the present, the following brief statement may be sufficient. According to the evidences I am obtaining, the bulb, when in action, is emitting a stream of small material particles. There are some experiments which seem to indicate that these particles start from the outer wall of the bulb; there are others which seem to prove that there is an actual penetration of the wall, and, in the case of a thin aluminum window, I have now not the least doubt that some of the finely disintegrated cathodic matter is actually forced through. These streams may simply be projected to a great distance, the velocity gradually diminishing without the formation of any waves, or they may give rise to concussions and longitudinal waves. This, for the present consideration, is entirely immaterial, but, assuming the existence of such streams of particles, and disregarding such actions as might be due to the properties, chemical or physical, of the projected matter, we have to consider the following specific actions:

First. There is the thermal effect. The temperature of the electrode or impact body does not in any way give us an idea of the degree of heat of the particles, but, if we consider the probable velocities only, they correspond to temperatures which may be as high as 100,000 degrees centigrade. It may be sufficient that the particles are simply at a high temperature to produce an injurious action, and, in fact, many evidences point in this direction. But against this is the experimental fact that we can not demonstrate such a transference of heat, and no satisfactory explanation is found yet, although, in carrying my investigations in this direction, I have arrived at some results.

Second, there is the purely electrical effect. We have absolute experimental evidence that the particles or rays, to express myself generally, convey an immense amount of electricity, and I have even found a way of how to estimate and measure that amount. Now it is likewise possible that the mere fact of these particles being highly electrified is sufficient to cause the destruction of the tissue. Certainly, on contact with the skin, the electrical charges will be given off, and may give rise to strong and destructive local currents in minute paths of the tissue. Experimental results are in accord with this view, and, in pushing my inquiry in this direction, I have been still more successful than in the first. Yet, while as I have suggested before, this view explains best the action on a sensitive layer, experiment shows that, when the supposed particles traverse a grounded plate, they are not deprived entirely of their electrification, which is not satisfactorily explained.

The *third* effect to be considered is the electro-chemical. The charged particles give rise to an abundant generation of ozone and other gases, and these we know, by experiment, destroy even such a thing as rubber, and are, therefore, the most likely agent in the destruction of the skin, and the evidences are strongest in this direction, since a small layer of a fluid, preventing the contact of gaseous matter with the skin, seems to stop all action.

The *last* effect to be considered is the purely mechanical. It is thinkable that material particles, moving with great speed, may, merely by a mechanical impact and unavoidable heating at such speeds, be sufficient to deteriorate the tissues, and in such a case deeper layers might also be injured, whereas it is very probable that no such thing would occur if any of the former explanations would be found to hold.

Summing up my experimental experiences and the conclusions derived from them, it would seem advisable, first, to abandon the use of bulbs containing platinum; second, to substitute for them a properly constructed Lenard tube, containing pure aluminum only, a tube of this kind having, besides, the advantage that it can be constructed with great mechanical precision, and therefore is capable of producing much sharper impressions; third, to use a protecting screen of aluminum sheet, as suggested, or, instead of this, a wet cloth or a layer of a fluid; fourth, to make the exposures at distances of, at least, 14 inches, and preferably expose longer at a larger distance.

ON THE SOURCE OF ROENTGEN RAYS AND THE PRACTICAL CONSTRUCTION AND SAFE OPERATION OF LENARD TUBES*

I have for some time felt that a few indications in regard to the practical construction of Lenard tubes of improved designs, a great number of which I have recently exhibited before the New York Academy of Sciences (April 6, 1897), would be useful and timely, particularly as by their proper construction and use much of the danger attending the experimentation with the rays may be avoided. The simple precautions which I have suggested in my previous communications are seemingly disregarded, and cases of injury to patients are being almost daily reported, and in view of this only, were it for no other reason, the following lines, referring to this subject, would have been written before had not again pressing and unavoidable duties prevented me from doing so. A short and, I may say, most unwelcome interruption of the work which has been claiming my attention makes this now possible. However, as these opportunities are scarce, I will utilize the present to dwell in a few words on some other matters in connection with this subject, and particularly on a result of importance which I have reached some time ago by the aid of such a Lenard tube, and which, if I am correctly informed, I can only in part consider as my own, since it seems that practically it has been expressed in other words by Professor Roentgen in a recent communication to the Academy of Sciences of Berlin. The result alluded to has reference to the much disputed question of the source of the Roentgen rays. As will be remembered, in the first announcement of his discovery, Roentgen was of the opinion that the rays which affected the sensitive layer emanated from the fluorescent spot on the glass wall of the bulb; other scientific men next made the cathode responsible; still others the anode, while some thought that the rays were emitted solely from fluorescent powders of surfaces, and speculations, mostly unfounded, increased to such an extent that, despairingly, one would exclaim with the poet:

"O glücklich wer noch hoffen kann,
Aus diesem Meer des Irrtums aufzutauchen!"

My own experiments led me to recognize that, regardless of the location, the chief source of these rays was the place of the *first* impact of the projected stream of particles within the bulb. This was merely a broad statement, of which that of Professor Roentgen was a special case, as in his first experiments the fluorescent spot on the glass wall was, incidentally, the place of the first impact of the cathodic stream. Investigations carried on up to the present day have only confirmed the correctness of the above opinion, and the place of the first collision of the stream of particles — be it an anode or independent

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* Electrical Review, August 11, 1897.

impact body, the glass wall or an aluminum window — is still found to be the principal source of the rays. But, as will be seen presently, it is not the only source.

Since recording the above fact my efforts were directed to finding answers to the following questions: First, is it necessary that the impact body should be within the tube? Second, is it required that the obstacle in the path of the cathodic stream should

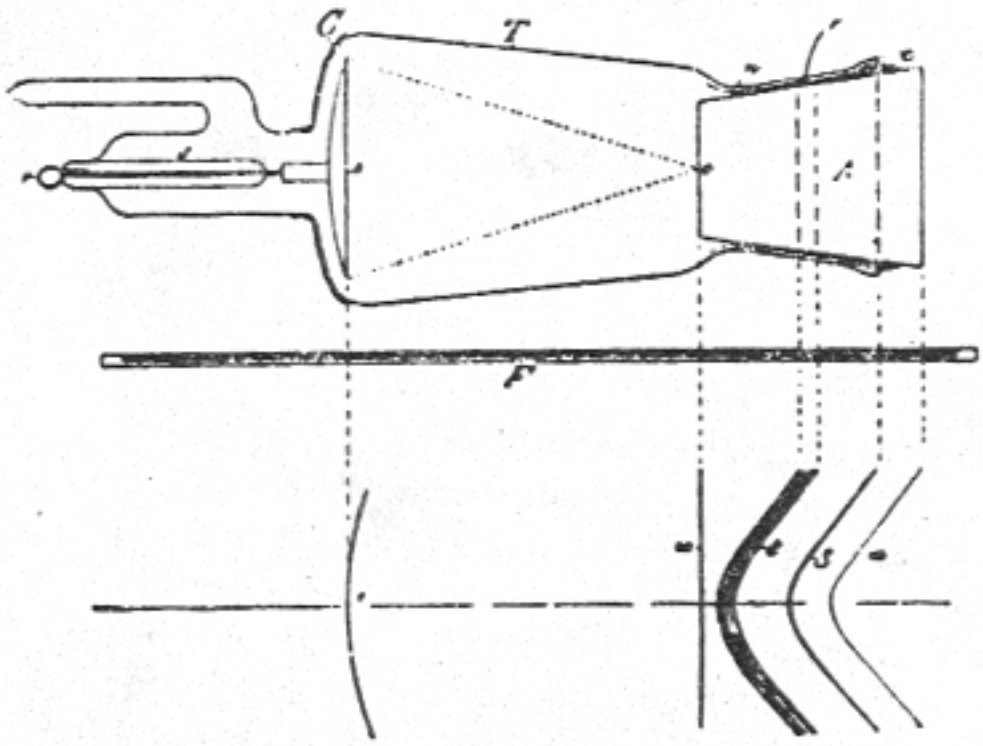

Fig. 1. — Illustrating an Experiment Revealing the Real Source of the Roentgen Rays.

be a solid or liquid? And, third, to what extent is the velocity of the stream necessary for the generation of and influence upon the character of the rays emitted?

In order to ascertain whether a body located outside of the tube and in the path or in the direction of the stream of particles was capable of producing the same peculiar phenomena as an object located inside, it appeared necessary to first show that there is an actual penetration of the particles through the wall, or otherwise that the actions

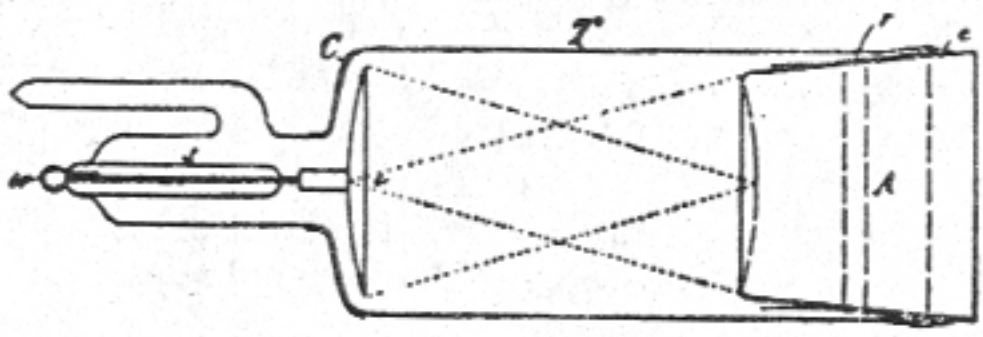

Fig. 2. — Improved Lenard Tube.

of the supposed streams, of whatever nature they might be, were sufficiently pronounced in the outer region close to the wall of the bulb as to produce some of the effects which are peculiar to a cathodic stream. It was not difficult to obtain with a properly prepared Lenard tube, having an exceedingly thin window, many and at first surprising evidences of this character. Some of these have already been pointed out, and it is thought sufficient to cite here one more which I have since observed. In the hollow aluminum cap A of a tube as shown in diagram Fig. 1, which will be described in detail, I placed a half-dollar silver piece, supporting it at a small distance from and parallel to the window or bottom of the cap by strips of mica in such a manner that it was not touching the metal of the tube, an air space being left all around it. Upon exciting the bulb for about 30 to 45 seconds by the secondary discharge of a powerful coil of a novel type now well known, it was found that the silver piece was rendered

so hot as to actually scorch the hand; yet the aluminum window, which offered a very insignificant obstacle to the cathodic stream, was only moderately warmed. Thus it was shown that the silver alloy, owing to its density and thickness, took up most of the energy of the impact, being acted upon by the particles almost identically as if it had been inside of the bulb, and, what is more, indications were obtained, by observing the shadows, that it behaved like a second source of the rays, inasmuch as the outlines of the shadows, instead of being sharp and clear as when the half-dollar piece was removed, were dimmed. It was immaterial for the chief object of the inquiry to decide by more exact methods whether the cathodic particles actually penetrated the window, or whether a new and separate stream was projected from the outer side of the window. In my mind there exists not the least doubt that the former was the case, as in this respect I have been able to obtain numerous additional proofs, upon which I may dwell in the near future.

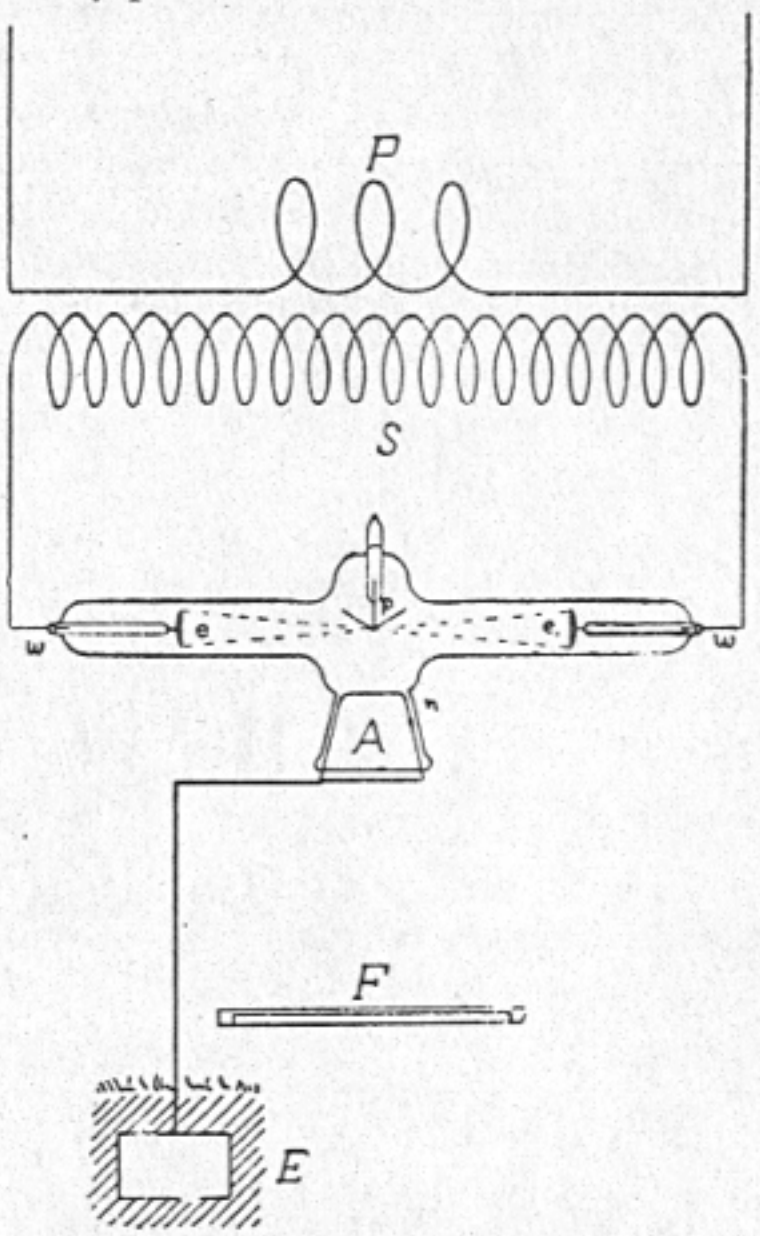

Fig. 3. — Illustrating Arrangement with Improved Double-Focus Tube for Reducing the Injurious Actions.

I next endeavored to ascertain whether it was necessary that the obstacle outside was, as in this case, a solid body, or a liquid, or broadly, a body of measurable dimensions, and it was in investigating in this direction that I came upon the important result to which I referred in the introductory statements of this communication. I namely observed rather accidentally, although I was following up a systematic inquiry, what is illustrated in diagram Fig. 1. The diagram shows a Lenard tube of improved design, consisting of a tube T of thick glass tapering towards the open end, or neck *n*, into which is fitted an aluminum cap A, and a spherical cathode *e*, supported on a glass stem *s*, and platinum wire *w* sealed in the opposite end of the tube as usual. The aluminum cap A, as will be observed, is not in actual contact with the ground-glass wall, being held at a small distance from the latter by a narrow and continuous ring of tinfoil *r*. The outer space between the glass and the cap A is filled with cement *c*, in a manner which I shall later describe. F is a Roentgen screen such as is ordinarily used in making the observations.

Now, in looking upon the screen in the direction from F to T, the dark lines indicated on the lower part of the diagram were seen on the illuminated background. The curved line *e* and the straight line W were, of course, at once recognized as the outlines of the cathode *e* and the bottom of the cap A respectively, although, in consequence of a confusing optical illusion, they appeared much closer together than they actually were. For instance, if the distance between *e* and *o* was five inches, these lines would appear on the screen about two inches apart, as nearly as I could judge by the eye. This illusion may be easily explained and is quite unimportant, except that it might be of some moment to physicians to keep this fact in mind when making examinations with the screen as, owing to the above effect, which is sometimes exaggerated to a degree hard to believe, a completely erroneous idea of the distance of

the various parts of the object under examination might be gained, to the detriment of the surgical operation. But while the lines *e* and W were easily accounted for, the curved lines *t, g, a* were at first puzzling. Soon, however, it was ascertained that the faint line *a* was the shadow of the edge of the aluminum cap, the much darker line *g* that of the rim of the glass tube T, and *t* the shadow of the tinfoil ring *r*. These shadows on the screen F clearly showed that the agency which affected the fluorescent material was proceeding from the space outside of the bulb towards the aluminum cap, and chiefly from the region through which the primary disturbances or streams emitted from the tube through the window were passing, which observation could not be explained in a more plausible manner than by assuming that the air and dust particles outside, in the path of the projected streams, afforded an obstacle to their passage and gave rise to impacts and collisions spreading through the air in all directions, thus producing continuously new sources of the rays. It is this fact which, in his recent communication before mentioned, Roentgen has brought out. So, at least, I have interpreted his reported statement that the rays emanate from the irradiated air. It now remains to be shown whether the air, from which carefully all foreign particles are

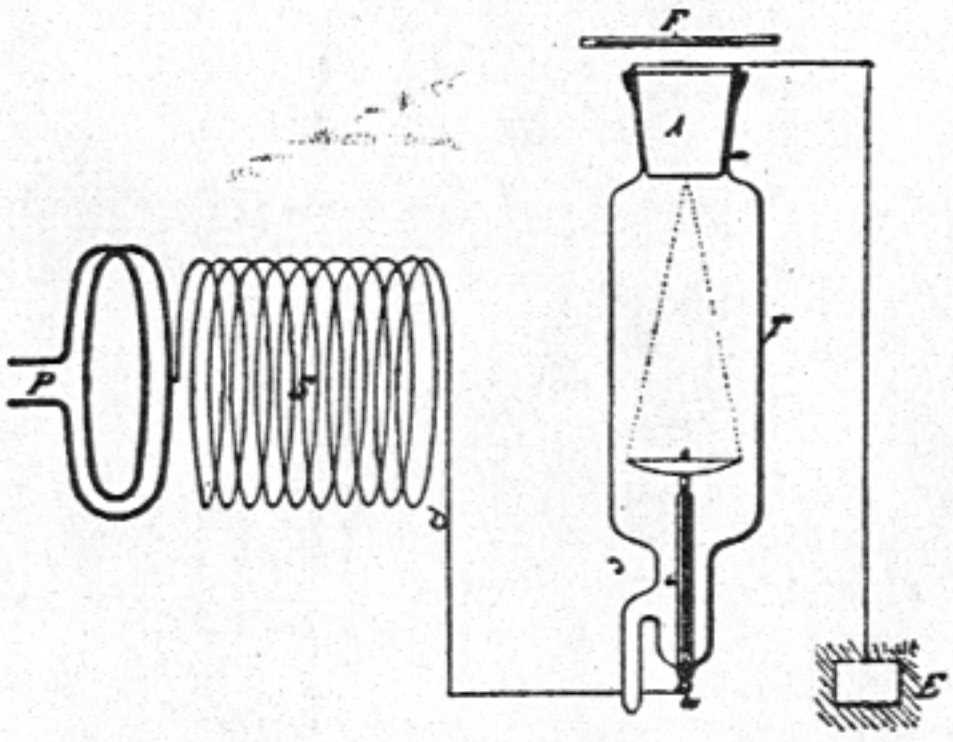

Fig. 4. — Illustrating Arrangement with a Lenard Tube for Safe Working at Close Range.

removed, is capable of behaving as an impact body and source of the rays, in order to decide whether the generation of the latter is dependent on the presence in the air of impact particles of measurable dimensions. I have reasons to think so.

With the knowledge of this fact we are now able to form a more general idea of the process of generation of the radiations which have been discovered by Lenard and Roentgen. It may be comprised in the statement that the streams of minute material particles projected from an electrode with great velocity in encountering obstacles wherever they may be, within the bulb, in the air or other medium or in the sensitive layers themselves, give rise to rays or radiations possessing many of the properties of those known as light. If this physical process of generation of these rays is undoubtedly demonstrated as true, it will have most important consequences, as it will induce physicists to again critically examine many phenomena which are presently attributed to transverse ether waves, which may lead to a radical modification of existing views and theories in regard to these phenomena, if not as to their essence so, at least, as to the mode of their production.

My effort to arrive at an answer to the third of the above questions led me to the establishment, by actual photographs, of the close relationship which exists between

the Lenard and Roentgen rays. The photographs bearing on this point were exhibited at a meeting of the New York Academy of Sciences — before referred to — April 6, 1897, but, unfortunately, owing to the shortness of my address, and concentration of thought on other matters, I omitted what was most important; namely, to describe the manner in which these photographs were obtained, an oversight which I was able to only partially repair the day following. I did, however, on that occasion illustrate and describe experiments in which was shown the deflectibility of the Roentgen rays by a magnet, which establishes a still closer relationship, if not identity, of the rays named after these two discoverers. But the description of these experiments in detail, as well as of other investigations and results in harmony with and restricted to the subject I brought before that scientific body, will appear in a longer communication which I am slowly preparing.

To bring out clearly the significance of the photographs in question, I would recall that, in some of my previous contributions to scientific societies, I have endeavored to dispel a popular opinion before existing that the phenomena known as those of Crookes were dependent on and indicative of high vacua. With this object in view, I showed that phosphorescence and most of the phenomena in Crookes bulbs were producible at greater pressures of the gases in the bulbs by the use of much higher or more sudden electro-motive impulses. Having this well demonstrated fact before me, I prepared a tube in the manner described by Lenard in his first classical communication on this subject. The tube was exhausted to a moderate degree, either by chance or of necessity, and it was found that, when operated by an ordinary high-tension coil of a low rate of change in the current, no rays of any of the two kinds could be detected, even when the tube was so highly strained as to become very hot in a few moments. Now, I expected that, if the suddenness of the impulses through the bulb were sufficiently increased, rays would be emitted. To test this I employed a coil of a type which I have repeatedly described, in which the primary is operated by the discharges of a condenser. With such an instrument any desired suddenness of the impulses may be secured, there being practically no limit in this respect, as the energy accumulated in the condenser is the most violently explosive agent we know, and any potential or electrical pressure is obtainable. Indeed, I found that in increasing the suddenness of the electro-motive impulses through the tube — without, however, increasing, but rather diminishing the total energy conveyed to it — phosphorescence was observed and rays began to appear, first the feebler Lenard rays and later, by pushing the suddenness far enough, Roentgen rays of great intensity, which enabled me to obtain photographs showing the finest texture of the bones. Still, the same tube, when again operated with the ordinary coil of a low rate of change in the primary current, emitted practically no rays, even when, as before stated, much more energy, as judged from the heating, was passed through it. This experience, together with the fact that I have succeeded in producing by the use of immense electrical pressures, obtainable with certain apparatus designed for this express purpose, some impressions in free air, have led me to the conclusion that in lightning discharges Lenard and Roentgen rays must be generated at ordinary atmospheric pressure.

At this juncture I realize, by a perusal of the preceding lines, that my scientific interest has dominated the practical, and that the following remarks must be devoted to the primary object of this communication — that is, to giving some data for the construction to those engaged in the manufacture of the tubes and, perhaps, a few useful hints to practicing physicians who are dependent on such information. The foregoing was, nevertheless, not lost for this object, inasmuch as it has shown how much the result obtained depends on the proper construction of the instruments, for, with ordinary implements, most of the above observations could not have been made.

I have already described the form of tube illustrated in Fig. 1, and in Fig. 2 another still further improved design is shown. In this case the aluminum cap A, instead of

having a straight bottom as before, is shaped spherically, the center of the sphere coinciding with that of the electrode *e,* which itself, as in Fig. 1, has its focus in the center of the window of cap A, as indicated by the dotted lines. The aluminum cap A has a tinfoil ring *r,* as that in Fig. 1, or else the metal of the cap is spun out on that place so as to afford a bearing of small surface between the metal and the glass. This is an important practical detail as, by making the bearing surface small, the pressure per unit of area is increased and a more perfect joint made. The ring *r* should be first spun out and then ground to fit the neck of the bulb. If a tinfoil ring is used instead, it may be cut out of one of the ordinary tinfoil caps obtainable in the market, care being taken that the ring is very smooth.

In Fig. 3 I have shown a modified design of tube which, as the two types before described, was comprised in the collection I exhibited. This, as will be observed, is a double-focus tube, with impact plates of iridium alloy and an aluminum cap A opposite the same. The tube is not shown because of any originality in design, but simply to illustrate a practical feature. It will be noted that the aluminum caps in the tubes described are fitted inside of the necks and not outside, as is frequently done. Long experience has demonstrated that it is practically impossible to maintain a high vacuum in a tube with an outside cap. The only way I have been able to do this in a fair measure is by cooling the cap by a jet of air, for instance, and observing the following precautions: The air jet is first turned on slightly and upon this the tube is excited. The current through the latter, and also the air pressure, are then gradually increased and brought to the normal working condition. Upon completing the experiment the air pressure and current through the tube are both gradually reduced and both so manipulated that no great differences in temperature result between the glass and aluminum cap. If those precautions are not observed the vacuum will be immediately impaired in consequence of the uneven expansion of the glass and metal.

With tubes, as these presently described, it is quite unnecessary to observe this precaution if proper care is taken in their preparation. In inserting the cap the latter is cooled down as low as it is deemed advisable without endangering the glass, and it is then gently pushed in the neck of the tube, taking care that it sets straight.

The two most important operations in the manufacture of such a tube are, however, the thinning down of the aluminum window and the sealing in of the cap. The metal of the latter may be one thirty-second or even one-sixteenth of an inch thick, and in such case the central portion may be thinned down by a countersink tool about one-fourth of an inch in diameter as far as it is possible without tearing the sheet. The further thinning down may then be done by hand with a scraping tool; and, finally, the metal should be gently beaten down so as to surely close the pores which might permit a slow leak. Instead of proceeding in this way I have employed a cap with a hole in the center, which I have closed with a sheet of pure aluminum a few thousandths of an inch thick, riveted to the cap by means of a washer of thick metal, but the results were not quite as satisfactory.

In sealing the cap I have adopted the following procedure: The tube is fastened on the pump in the proper position and exhausted until a permanent condition is reached. The degree of exhaustion is a measure of perfection of the joint. The leak is usually considerable, but this is not so serious a defect as might be thought. Heat is now gradually applied to the tube by means of a gas stove until a temperature up to about the boiling point of sealing wax is reached. The space between the cap and the glass is then filled with sealing wax of good quality; and, when the latter begins to boil, the temperature is reduced to allow its settling in the cavity. The heat is then again increased, and this process of heating and cooling is repeated several times until the entire cavity, upon reduction of the temperature, is found to be filled uniformly with the wax, all bubbles having disappeared. A little more wax is then put on the top and

the exhaustion carried on for an hour or so, according to the capacity of the pump, by application of moderate heat much below the melting point of the wax.

A tube prepared in this manner will maintain the vacuum very well, and will last indefinitely. If not used for a few months, it may gradually lose the high vacuum, but it can be quickly worked up. However, if after long use it becomes necessary to clean the tube, this is easily done by gently warming it and taking off the cap. The cleaning may be done first with acid, then with highly diluted alkali, next with distilled water, and finally with pure rectified alcohol.

These tubes, when properly prepared, give impressions much sharper and reveal much more detail than those of ordinary make. It is important for the clearness of the impressions that the electrode should be properly shaped, and that the focus should be exactly in the center of the cap or slightly inside. In fitting in the cap, the distance from the electrode should be measured as exactly as possible. It should also be remarked that the thinner the window, the sharper are the impressions, but it is not advisable to make it too thin, as it is apt to melt in a point on turning on the current.

The above advantages are not the only ones which these tubes offer. They are also better adapted for purposes of examination by surgeons, particularly if used in the peculiar manner illustrated in diagrams Fig. 3 and Fig. 4, which are self-explanatory. It will be seen that in each of these the cap is connected to the ground. This decidedly diminishes the injurious action and enables also to take impressions with very short exposures of a few seconds only at close range, inasmuch as, during the operation of the bulb, one can easily touch the cap without any inconvenience, owing to the ground connection. The arrangement shown in Fig. 4 is particularly advantageous with a form of single terminal, which coil I have described on other occasions and which is diagrammatically illustrated, P being the primary and S the secondary. In this instance the high-potential terminal is connected to the electrode, while the cap is grounded. The tube may be placed in the position indicated in the drawing, under the operating table and quite close or even in contact with the body of the patient, if the impression requires only a few seconds as, for instance, in examining parts of the members. I have taken many impressions with such tubes and have observed no injurious action, but I would advise not to expose for longer than two or three minutes at very short distances. In this respect the experimenter should bear in mind what I have stated in previous communications. At all events it is certain that, in proceeding in the manner described, additional safety is obtained and the process of taking impressions much quickened. To cool the cap, a jet of air may be used, as before stated, or else a small quantity of water may be poured in the cap each time when an impression is taken. The water only slightly impairs the action of the tube, while it maintains the window at a safe temperature. I may add that the tubes are improved by providing back of the electrode a metallic coating C, shown in Fig. 3 and Fig. 4.

ON CURRENT INTERRUPTERS*

To stimulate the ardor of the zealous experimenters, who believe in the revolutionary character of this discovery, it might be well to suggest one or two such simple devices for interrupting the current. For instance, a very primitive contrivance of this kind comprises a poker — yes, an ordinary poker, connected by means of a flexible cable to one of the mains of the generator, and a bathtub filled with conducting fluid which is connected in any suitable manner, through the primary of an induction coil, to the other pole of the generator. When the experimenter desires to take a Roentgen picture, he brings the end of the poker to white heat, and, thrusting the same into the bathtub, he will at once witness an astonishing phenomenon, the seething and boiling liquid making and breaking the current in rapid succession, and the powerful rays generated will at once convince him of the great practical value of this discovery. I might further suggest that the poker may be conveniently heated by means of a welding machine.

Another device, entirely automatic, and probably suitable for use in suburban districts, comprises two insulated metal plates, supported in any convenient manner, in close proximity to each other. These plates are connected through the primary of an induction coil with the determinals of a generator, and are bridged by two movable contacts joined by a flexible cable. The two contacts are both attached to the legs of a good-sized chicken standing astride on the plates. Heat being applied to the latter, muscular contractions are produced in the legs of the chicken, which thus makes and breaks the current through the induction coil. Any number of such chickens may be provided and the contacts connected in series or multiple arc, as may be desired, thus increasing the frequency of the impulses. In this manner fierce sparks, suitable for most purposes, may be obtained, and vacuum tubes may be operated, and these contrivances will be found a notable improvement on certain circuit-breakers of old, with which two enterprising editors undertook some years ago to revolutionize the systems of electric lighting. The enterprising editors are wiser now. They are to be congratulated, and their readers, scientific societies and the profession, all ought to be congratulated, and — "all is well that ends well." The observant experimenter will not fail to note that the fierce sparks frighten the chickens, which are thus put into more violent spasms and muscular contractions, this again increasing the fierceness of the sparks, which, in return, causes a greater fright of the chickens and increased speed of interruptions; it is, in fact, as Kipling says:

> *"Interdependence absolute, foreseen, ordained, decreed,*
> *To work, ye'll note, at any tilt an' every rate o'speed."*

But to return, in all earnestness, to the "electrolytic interrupter" described, this is a device with which I am perfectly familiar, having carried on extensive experiments with the same two or three years ago. It was one of many devices which I invented in

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* Electrical Review, March 15, 1899.

my efforts to produce an economical contrivance of this kind. The name is really not appropriate, inasmuch as any fluid, either conducting or made so in any manner, as by being rendered acid or alkaline, or by being heated, may be used. I have even found it possible, under certain conditions, to operate with mercury. The device is extremely simple, but the great waste of energy attendant upon its operation and certain other defects make it entirely unsuitable for any valuable, practical purpose, and as far as those instances are concerned, in which a small amount of energy is needed, much better results are obtained by a properly designed mechanical circuit-breaker. The experimenters are very likely deceived by finding that an induction coil gives longer sparks when this device is inserted in place of the ordinary break, but this is due merely to the fact that the break is not properly designed. Of the total energy supplied from the mains, scarcely one-fourth is obtainable of that amount, which a well constructed mechanical break furnishes in the secondary, and although I have designed many improved forms, I have found it impossible to increase materially the economy. Two improvements, however, which I found at that time necessary to introduce, I may mention for the benefit of those who are using the device. As will be readily noted, the small terminal is surrounded by a gaseous bubble, in which the makes and breaks are formed, generally in an irregular manner, by the liquid being driven towards the terminal at some point. The force which drives the liquid is evidently the pressure of the fluid column, and by increasing the fluid pressure in any manner the liquid is forced with greater speed towards the terminal and thus the frequency is increased. Another necessary improvement was to make a provision for preventing the acid or alkali from being carried off into the atmosphere, which always happens more or less, even if the liquid column be of some height. During my early experiments with the device I became so interested in it that I neglected this precaution, and I noted that the acid had attacked all the apparatus in my laboratory. The experimenter will conveniently carry out both of these improvements by taking a long glass tube of, say, six to eight feet in length, and arranging the interrupting device close to the bottom of the tube, with an outlet for eventually replacing the liquid. The high column will prevent the fumes from vitiating the atmosphere of the room, and the increased pressure will add materially to the effectiveness of the performance. If the liquid column be, say, nine times as high, the force driving the fluid towards the contact is nine times as great, and this force is capable, under the same conditions, of driving the fluid three times as fast, hence the frequency is increased in that ratio and, in fact, in a somewhat greater ratio, as the gaseous bubble, being compressed, is rendered smaller, and therefore the liquid is made to travel through a smaller distance. The electrode, of course, should be very small to insure the regularity of operation, and it is not necessary to use platinum. The pressure may, however, be increased in other ways, and I have obtained some results of interest, in experiments of this kind.

As before stated, the device is very wasteful, and, while it may be used in some instances, I consider it of little or no practical value. It will please me to be convinced of the contrary, but I do not think that I am erring. My chief reasons for this statement are that there are many other ways in which by far better results are obtainable with devices equally simple, if not more so. I may mention one here, based on a different principle, which is incomparably more effective, more efficient and also simpler on the whole. It comprises a fine stream of conducting fluid which is made to issue, with any desired speed, from an orifice connected with one pole of a generator, through the primary of the induction coil, against the other terminal of the generator placed at a small distance. This device gives discharges of a remarkable suddenness, and the frequency may be brought within reasonable limits, almost to anything desired. I have used this device for a long time in connection with ordinary coils and in a form of my own coil with results greatly superior in every respect to those obtainable with the form of device discussed.

ELECTRICAL OSCILLATORS*

Few fields have been opened up the exploration of which has proved as fruitful as that of high frequency currents. Their singular properties and the spectacular character of the phenomena they presented immediately commanded universal attention. Scientific men became interested in their investigation, engineers were attracted by their commercial possibilities, and physicians recognized in them a long-sought means for effective treatment of bodily ills. Since the publication of my first researches in 1891, hundreds of volumes have been written on the subject and many invaluable results obtained through the medium of this new agency. Yet, the art is only in its infancy and the future has incomparably bigger things in store.

From the very beginning I felt the necessity of producing efficient apparatus to meet a rapidly growing demand and during the eight years succeeding my original announcements I developed not less than fifty types of these transformers or electrical oscillators, each complete in every detail and refined to such a degree that I could not materially improve any one of them today. Had I been guided by practical considerations I might have built up an immense and profitable business, incidentally rendering important services to the world. But the force of circumstances and the ever enlarging vista of greater achievements turned my efforts in other directions. And so it comes that instruments will shortly be placed on the market which, oddly enough, were perfected twenty years ago!

These oscillators are expressly intended to operate on direct and alternating lighting circuits and to generate damped and undamped oscillations or currents of any frequency, volume and tension within the widest limits. They are compact, self-contained, require no care for long periods of time and will be found very convenient and useful for various purposes as, wireless telegraphy and telephony; conversion of electrical energy; formation of chemical compounds through fusion and combination; synthesis of gases; manufacture of ozone; lighting; welding; municipal, hospital, and domestic sanitation and sterilization, and numerous other applications in scientific laboratories and industrial institutions. While these transformers have never been described before, the general principles underlying them were fully set forth in my published articles and patents, more particularly those of September 22, 1896, and it is thought, therefore, that the appended photographs of a few types, together with a short explanation, will convey all the information that may be desired.

The essential parts of such an oscillator are: a condenser, a self-induction coil for charging the same to a high potential, a circuit controller, and a transformer which is

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* Electrical Experimenter, July 1919.

energized by the oscillatory discharges of the condenser. There are at least three, but usually four, five or six, circuits in tune and the regulation is effected in several ways, most frequently merely by means of an adjusting screw. Under favorable conditions an efficiency as high as 85% is attainable, that is to say, that percentage of the energy supplied can be recovered in the secondary of the transformer. While the chief virtue of this kind of apparatus is obviously due to the wonderful powers of the condenser, special qualities result from concatenation of circuits under observance of accurate harmonic relations, and minimization of frictional and other losses which has been one of the principal objects of the design.

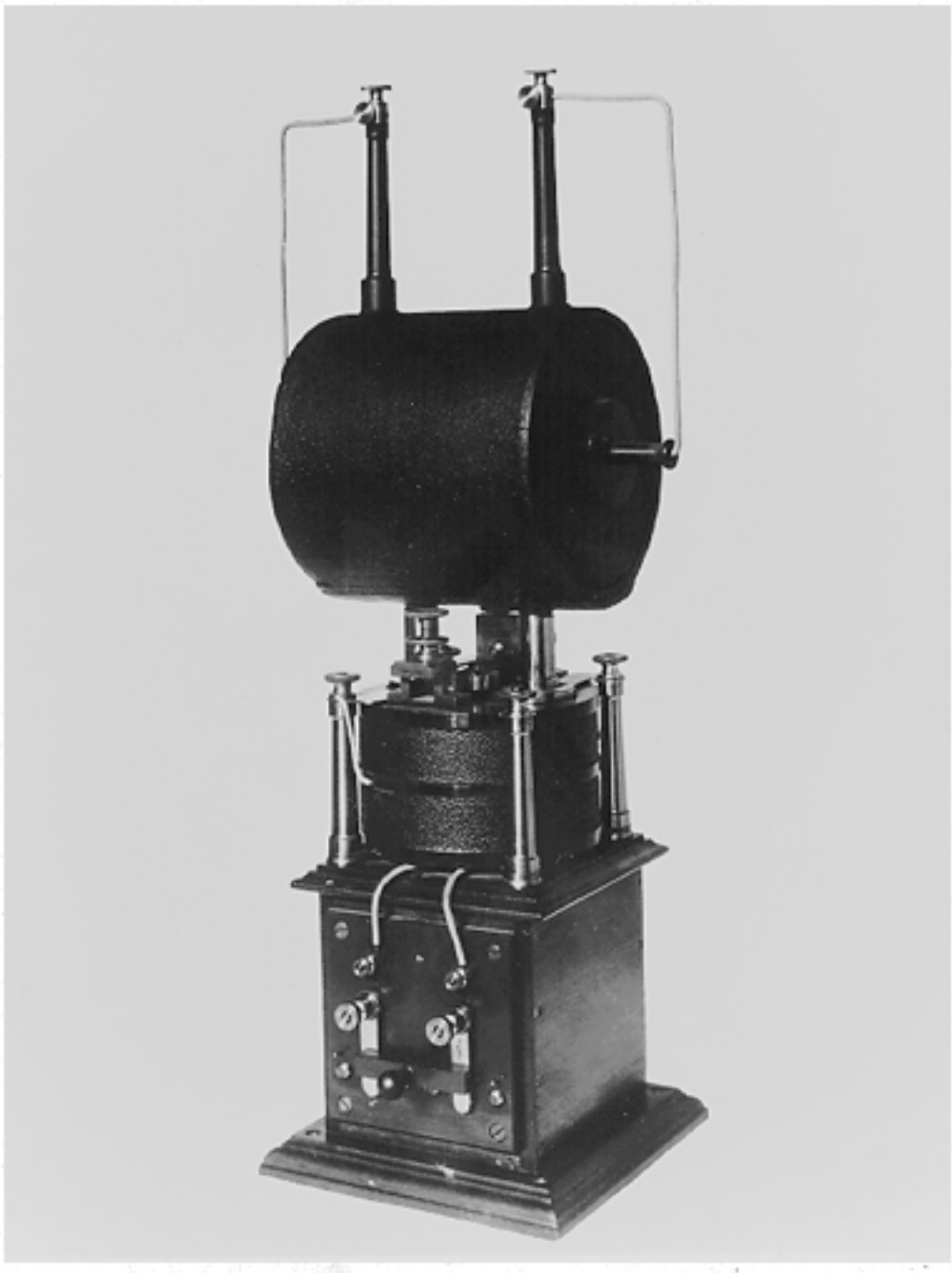

Fig. 1.

Broadly, the instruments can be divided into two classes: one in which the circuit controller comprises solid contacts, and the other in which the make and break is effected by mercury. Figures 1 to 8, inclusive, belong to the first, and the remaining ones to the second class. The former are capable of an appreciably higher efficiency on account of the fact that the losses involved in the make and break are reduced to the minimum and the resistance component of the damping factor is very small. The latter are preferable for purposes requiring larger output and a great number of breaks per second. The operation of the motor and circuit controller of course consumes a certain amount of energy which, however, is the less significant the larger the capacity of the machine.

In Fig. 1 is shown one of the earliest forms of oscillator constructed for experimental purposes. The condenser is contained in a square box of mahogany upon which is mounted the self-induction or charging coil wound, as will be noted, in two sections connected in multiple or series according to whether the tension of the supply circuit is 110 or 220 volts. From the box protrude four brass columns carrying a plate with

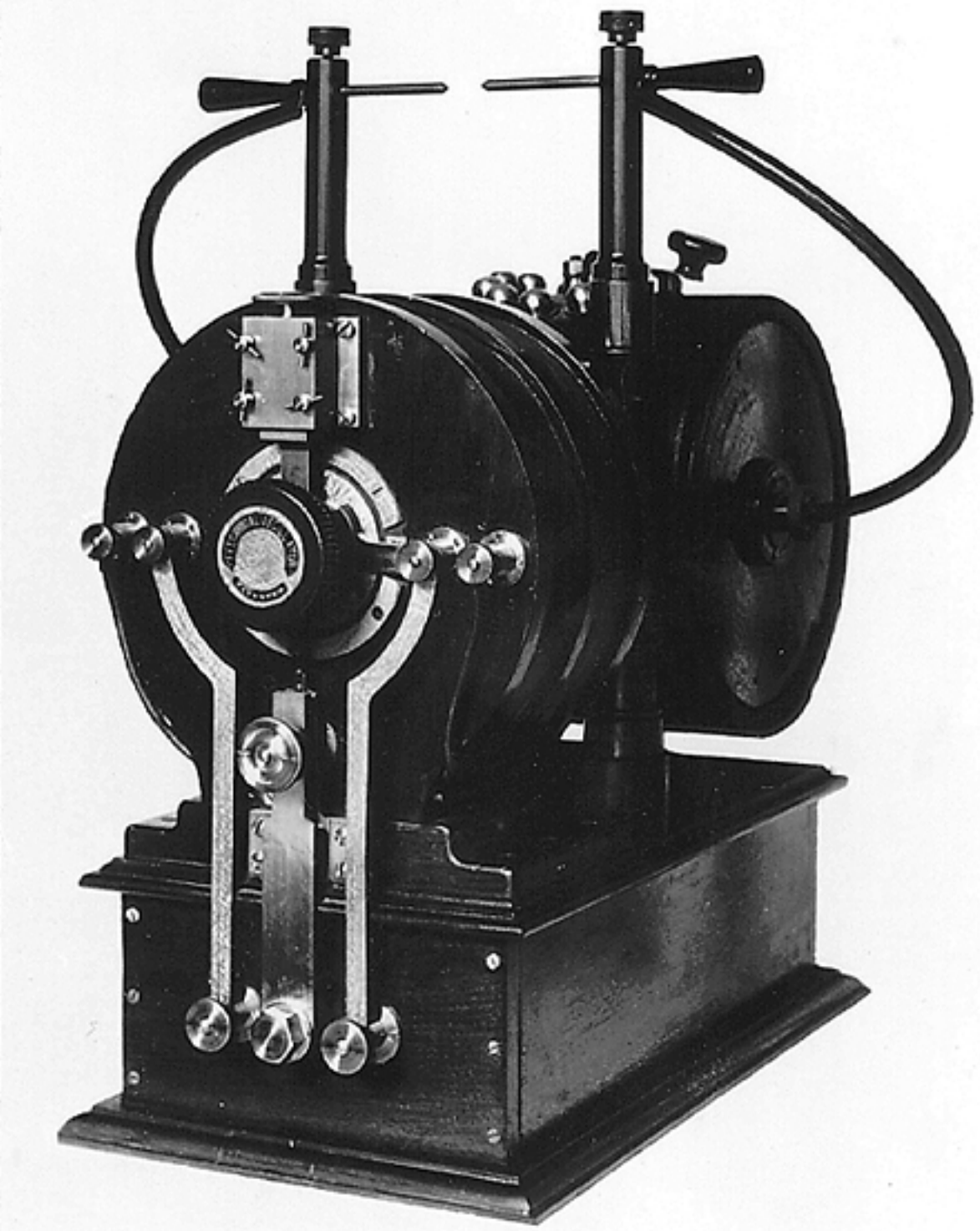

Fig. 2.

the spring contacts and adjusting screws as well as two massive terminals for the reception of the primary of the transformer. Two of the columns serve as condenser connections while the other pair is employed to join the binding posts of the switch in front to the self-inductance and condenser. The primary coil consists of a few turns of copper ribbon to the ends of which are soldered short rods fitting into the terminals referred to. The secondary is made in two parts, wound in a manner to reduce as much as possible the distributed capacity and at the same time enable the coil to withstand a very high pressure between its terminals at the center, which are connected to binding posts on two rubber columns projecting from the primary. The circuit connections may be slightly varied but ordinarily they are as diagrammatically illustrated in the Electrical

Experimenter for May on page 89, relating to my oscillation transformer photograph of which appeared on page 16 of the same number. The operation is as follows: When the switch is thrown on, the current from the supply circuit rushes through the self-induction coil, magnetizing the iron core within and separating the contacts of the controller. The high tension induced current then charges the condenser and upon

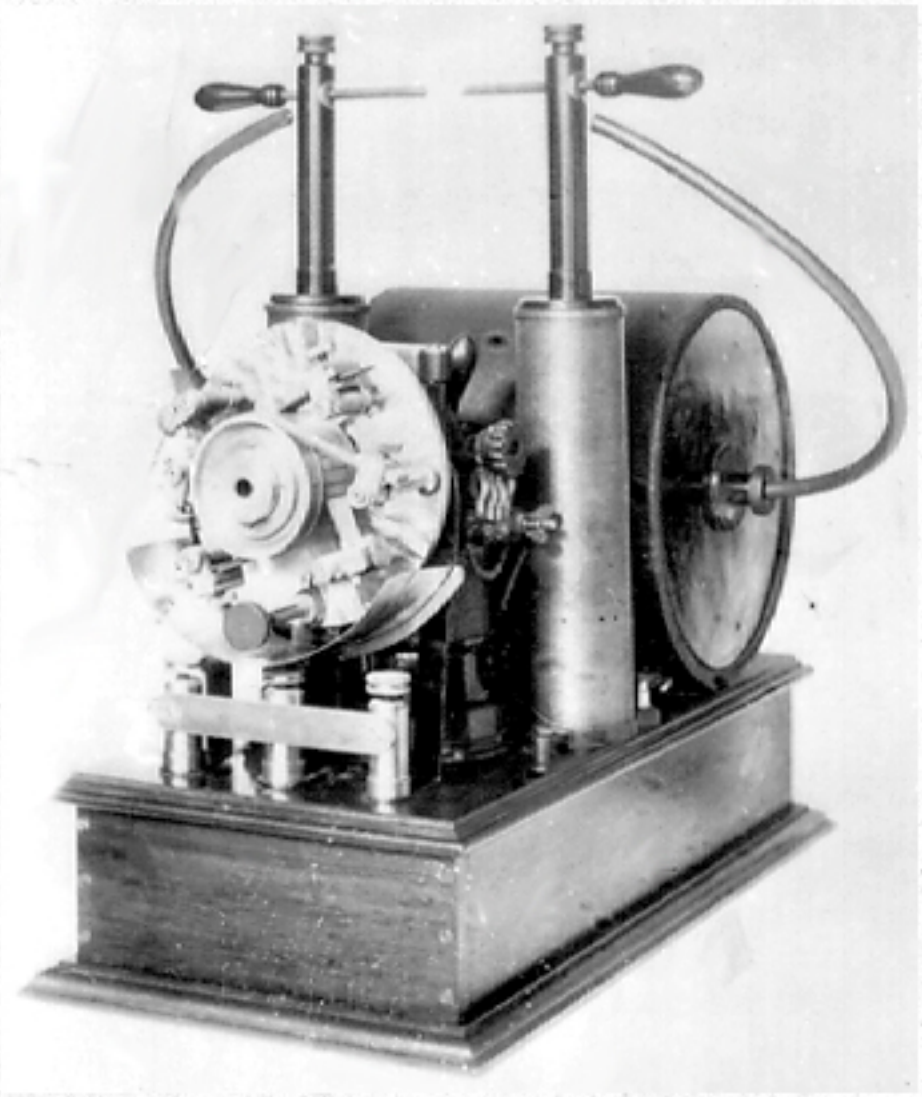

Fig. 3.

closure of the contacts the accumulated energy is released through the primary, giving rise to a long series of oscillations which excite the tuned secondary circuit.

This device has proved highly serviceable in carrying on laboratory experiments of all kinds. For instance, in studying phenomena of impedance, the transformer was removed and a bent copper bar inserted in the terminals. The latter was often replaced by a large circular loop to exhibit inductive effects at a distance or to excite resonant circuits used in various investigations and measurements. A transformer suitable for any desired performance could be readily improvised and attached to the terminals and in this way much time and labor was saved. Contrary to what might be naturally expected, little trouble was experienced with the contacts, although the currents through them were heavy, namely, proper conditions of resonance existing, the great flow occurs only when the circuit is closed and no destructive arcs can develop. Originally I employed platinum and iridium tips but later replaced them by some of meteorite and finally of tungsten. The last have given the best satisfaction, permitting working for hours and days without interruption.

Fig. 2 illustrates a small oscillator designed for certain specific uses. The underlying idea was to attain great activities during minute intervals of time each succeeded by a comparatively long period of inaction. With this object a large self-induction and a

quick-acting break were employed owing to which arrangement the condenser was charged to a very high potential. Sudden secondary currents and sparks of great volume were thus obtained, eminently suitable for welding thin wires, flashing lamp filaments, igniting explosive mixtures and kindred applications. The instrument was also adapted for battery use and in this form was a very effective igniter for gas engines on which a patent bearing number 609,250 was granted to me August 16, 1898.

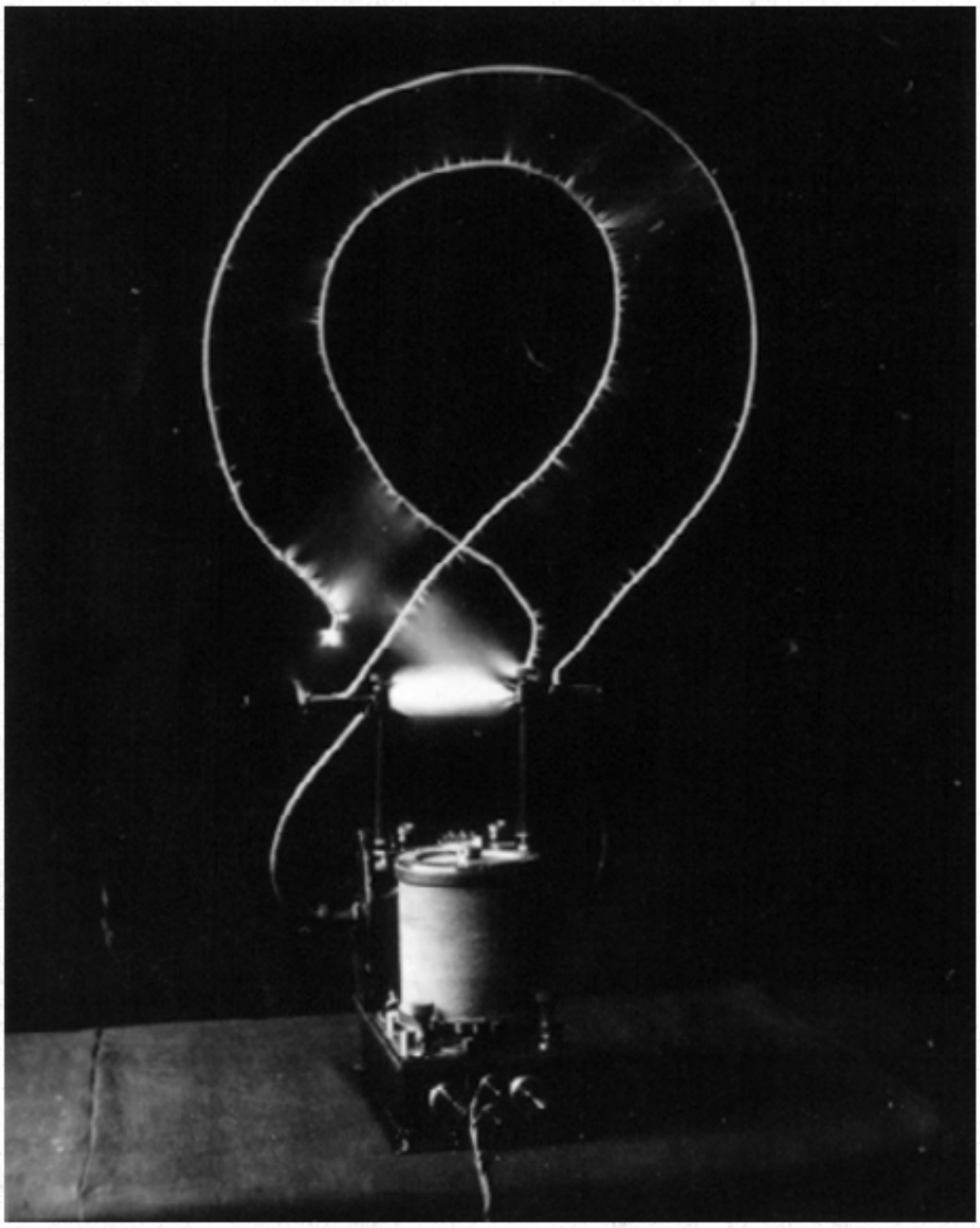

Fig. 4.

Fig. 3 represents a large oscillator of the first class intended for wireless experiments, production of Röntgen rays and scientific research in general. It comprises a box containing two condensers of the same capacity on which are supported the charging coil and transformer. The automatic circuit controller, hand switch and connecting posts are mounted on the front plate of the inductance spool as is also one of the contact springs. The condenser box is equipped with three terminals, the two external ones serving merely for connection while the middle one carries a contact bar with a screw for regulating the interval during which the circuit is closed. The vibrating spring itself, the sole function of which is to cause periodic interruptions, can be adjusted in its

strength as well as distance from the iron core in the center of the charging coil by four screws visible on the top plate so that any desired conditions of mechanical control might be secured. The primary coil of the transformer is of copper sheet and taps are made at suitable points for the purpose of varying, at will, the number of turns. As in Fig. 1 the inductance coil is wound in two sections to

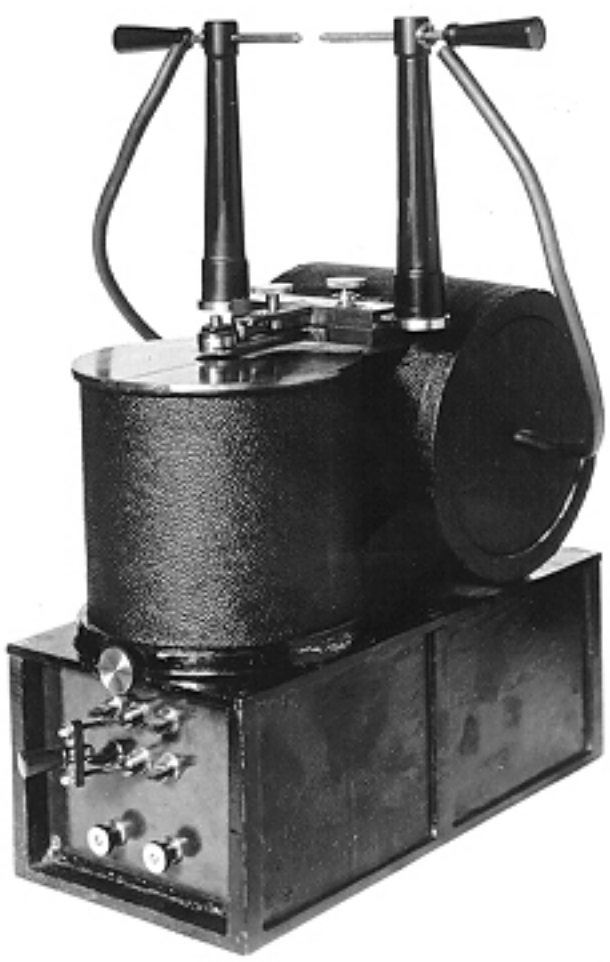

Fig. 5.

adapt the instrument both to 110 and 220 volt circuits and several secondaries were provided to suit the various wave lengths of the primary. The output was approximately 500 watt with damped waves of about 50,000 cycles per second. For short periods of time undamped oscillations were produced in screwing the vibrating spring tight against the iron core and separating the contacts by the adjusting screw *which also performed the function of a key*. With this oscillator I made a number of important observations and it was one of the machines exhibited at a lecture before the New York Academy of Sciences in 1897.

Fig. 4 is a photograph of a type of transformer in every respect similar to the one illustrated in the May, 1919, issue of the Electrical Experimenter to which reference has already been made. It contains the identical essential parts, disposed in like manner, but was specially designed for use on supply circuits of higher tension, from 220 to 500 volts or more. The usual adjustments are made in setting the contact spring and shifting the iron core within the inductance coil up and down by means of two screws. In order to prevent injury through a short-circuit, fuses are inserted in the lines. The instrument was photographed in action, generating undamped oscillations from a 220 volt lighting circuit.

Fig. 5 shows a later form of transformer principally intended to replace Rhumkorf coils. In this instance a primary is employed, having a much greater number of turns

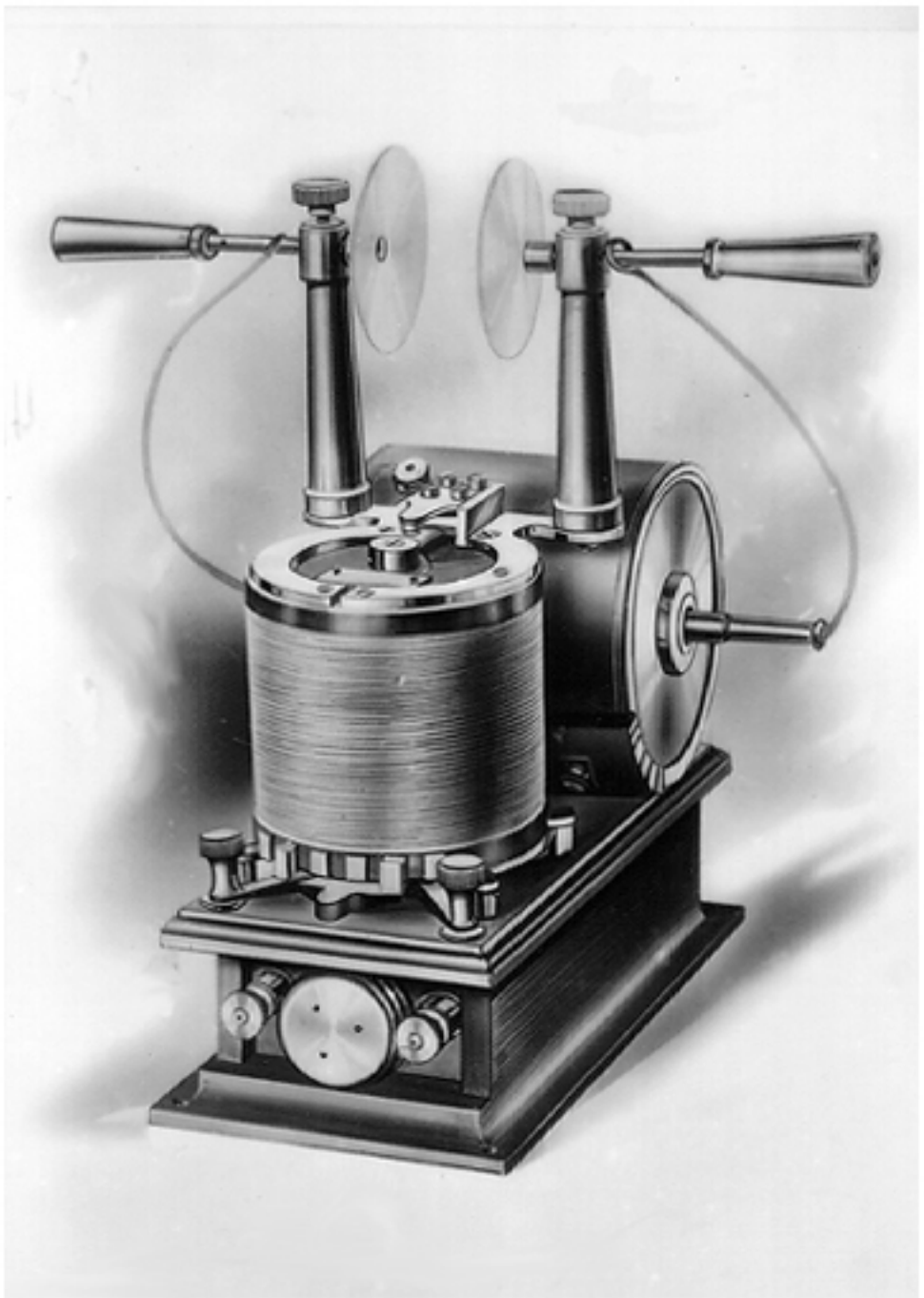

Fig. 6.

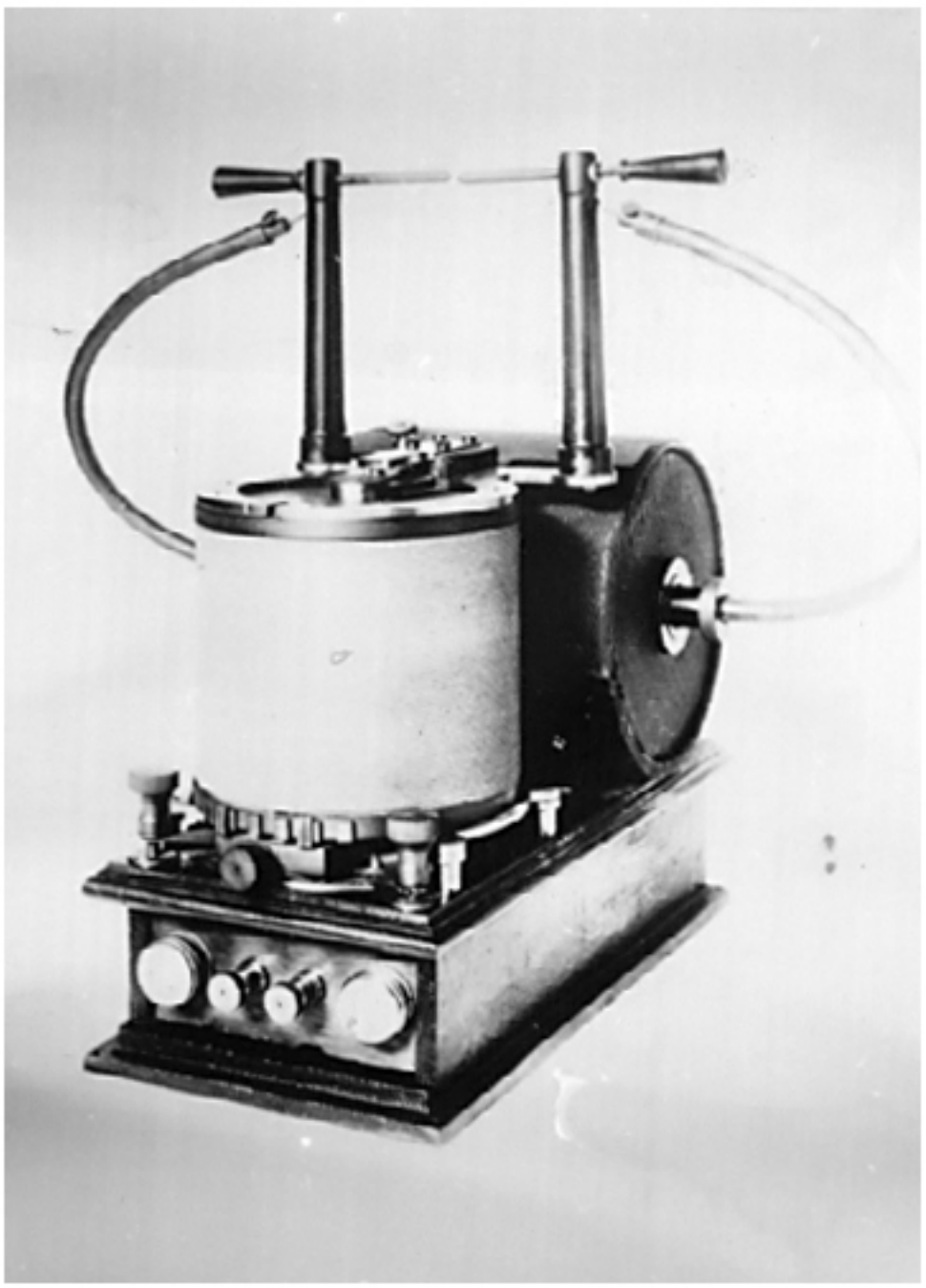

Fig. 7.

and the secondary is closely linked with the same. The currents developed in the latter, having a tension of from 10,000 to 30,000 volts, are used to charge condensers and operate an independent high frequency coil as customary. The controlling mechanism is of somewhat different construction but the core and contact spring are both adjustable as before.

Fig. 6 is a small instrument of this type, particularly intended for ozone production or sterilization. It is remarkably efficient for its size and can be connected either to a 110 or 220 volt circuit, direct or alternating, preferably the former.

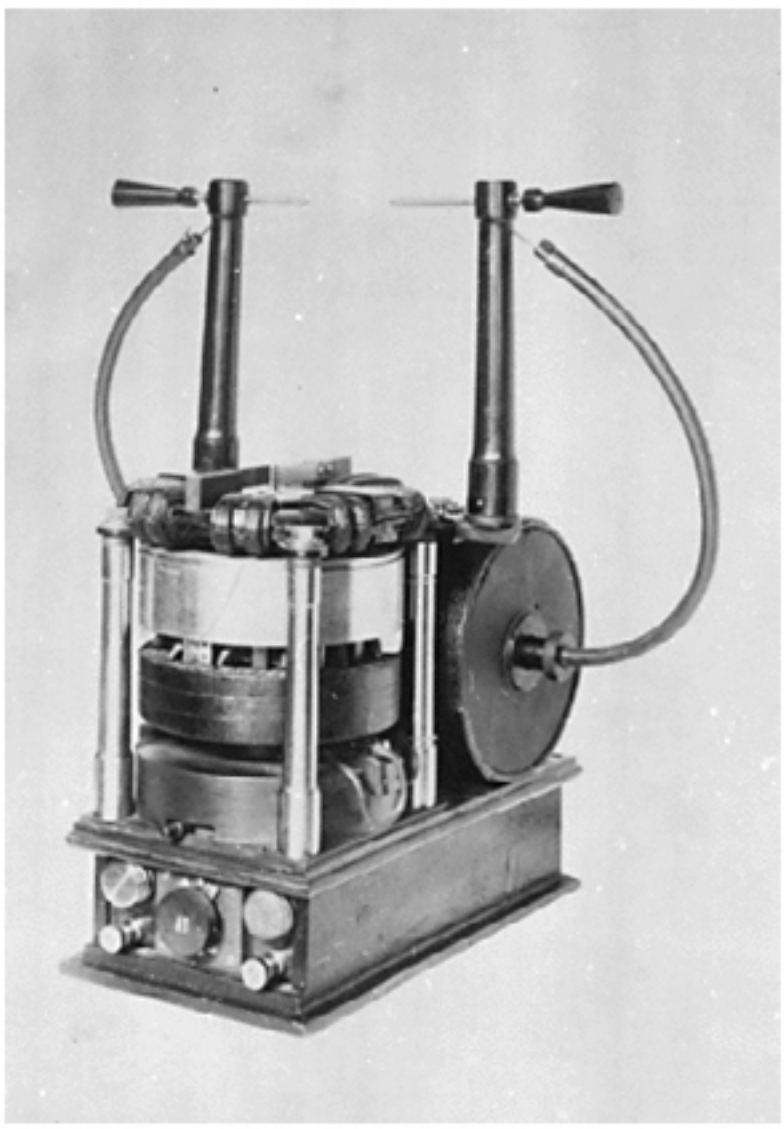

Fig. 8.

In Fig. 7 is shown a photograph of a larger transformer of this kind. The construction and disposition of the parts is as before but there are two condensers in the box, one of which is connected in the circuit as in the previous cases, while the other is in shunt to the primary coil. In this manner currents of great volume are produced in the latter and the secondary effects are accordingly magnified. The introduction of an additional tuned circuit secures also other advantages but the adjustments are rendered more difficult and for this reason it is desirable to use such an instrument in the production of currents of a definite and unchanging frequency.

Fig. 8 illustrates a transformer with rotary break. There are two condensers of the same capacity in the box which can be connected in series or multiple. The charging inductances are in the form of two long spools upon which are supported the secondary terminals. A small direct current motor, the speed of which can be varied within wide limits, is employed to drive a specially constructed make and break. In other features the oscillator is like the one illustrated in Fig. 3 and its operation will be readily understood from the foregoing. This transformer was used in my wireless experiments

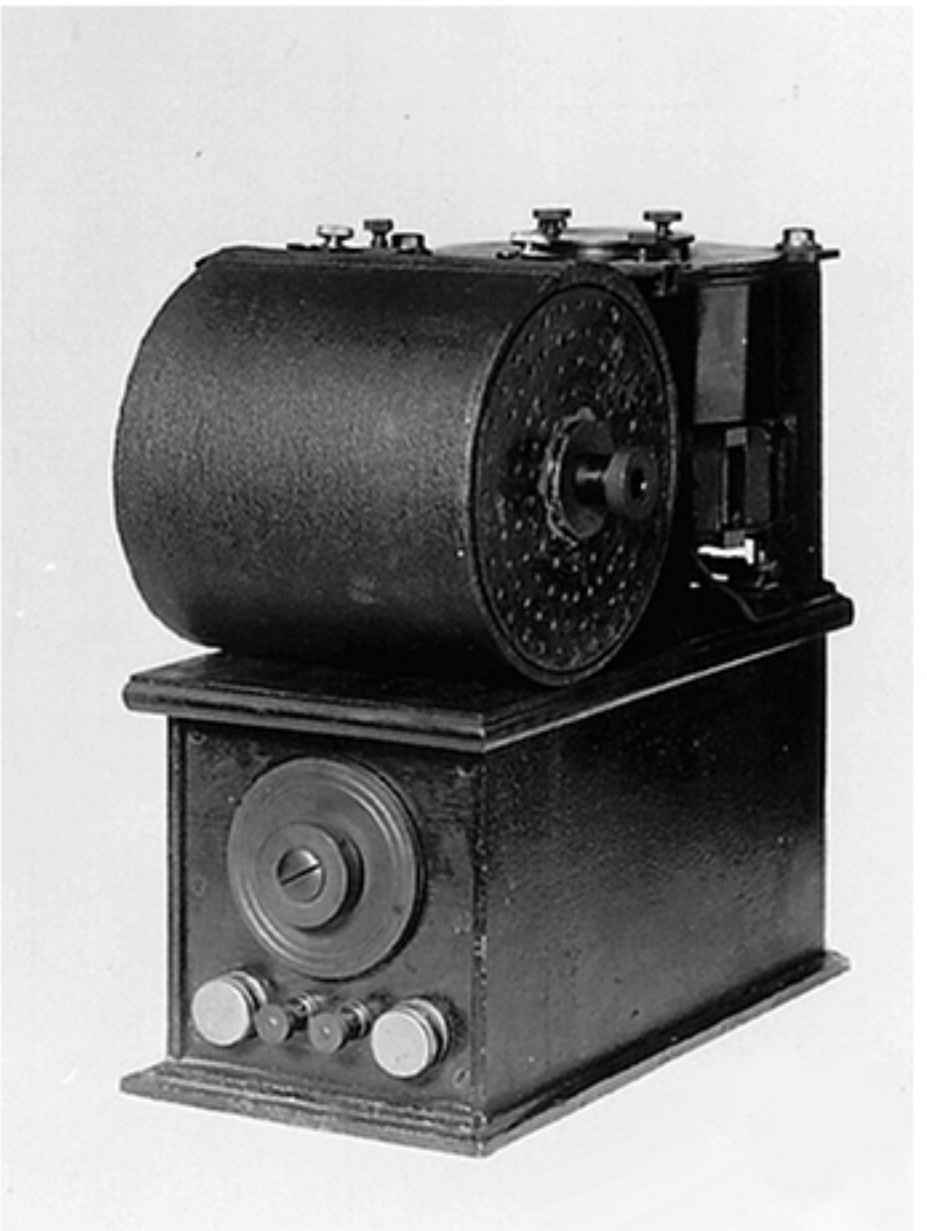

Fig. 9.

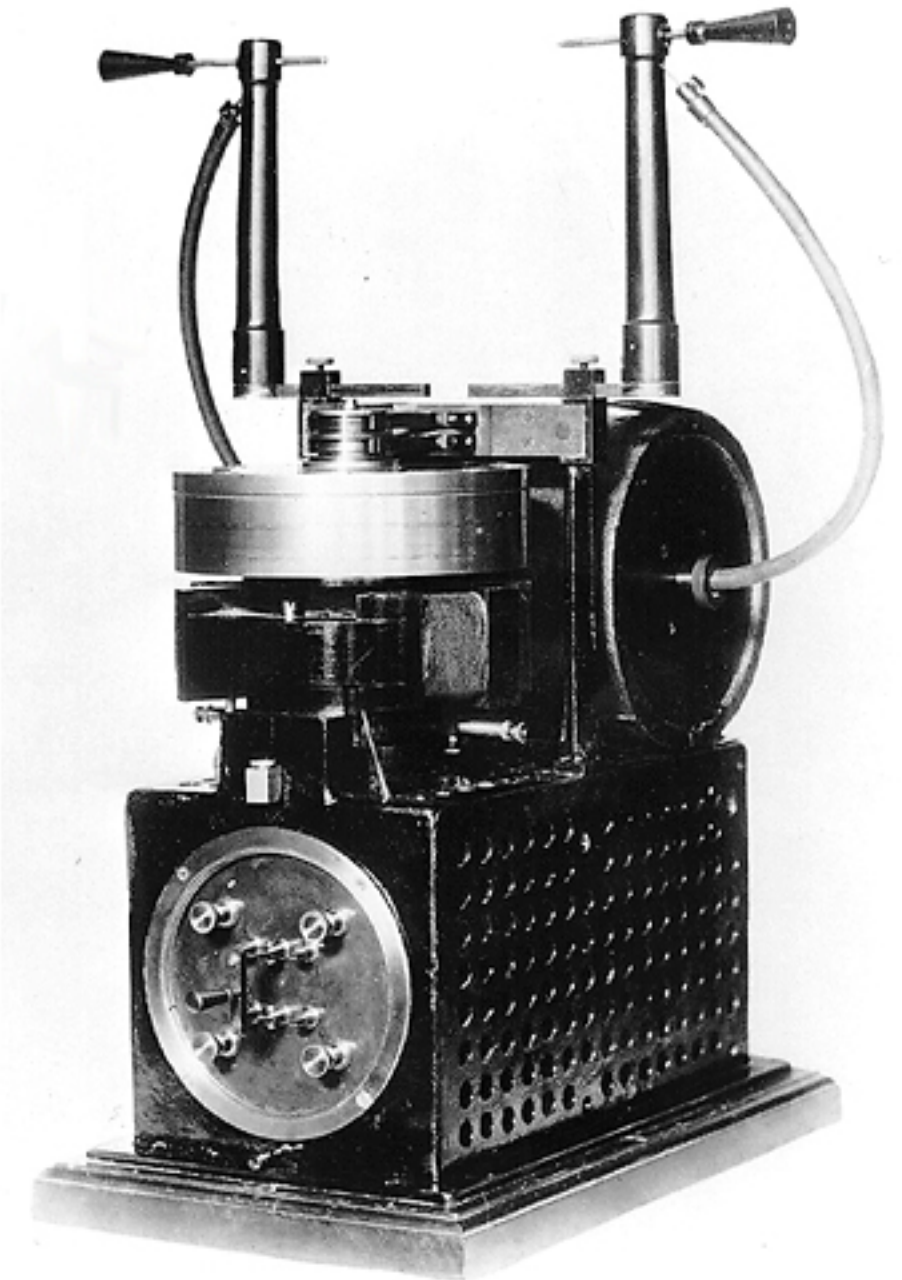

Fig. 10.

and frequently also for lighting the laboratory by my vacuum tubes and was likewise exhibited at my lecture before the New York Academy of Sciences above mentioned.

Coming now to machines of the second class, Fig. 9 shows an oscillatory transformer comprising a condenser and charging inductance enclosed in a box, a transformer and a mercury circuit controller, the latter being of a construction described for the first time in my patent No. 609,251 of August 16, 1898. It consists of a motor driven hollow pulley containing a small quantity of mercury which is thrown outwardly against the walls of the vessel by centrifugal force and entrains a contact wheel which periodically closes and opens the condenser circuit. By means of adjusting screws

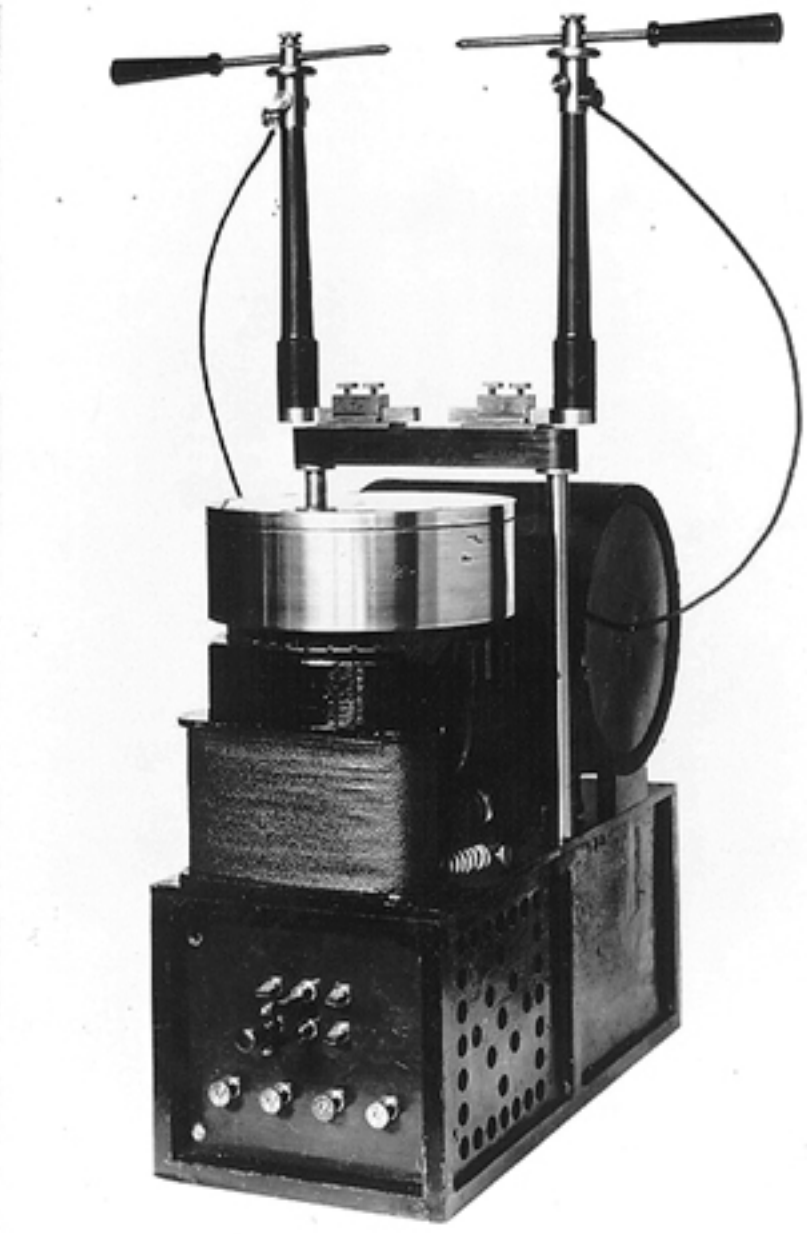

Fig. 11.

above the pulley, the depth of immersion of the vanes and consequently, also, the duration of each contact can be varied at desire and thus the intensity of the effects and their character controlled. This form of break has given thorough satisfaction, working continuously with currents of from 20 to 25 amperes. The number of interruptions is usually from 500 to 1,000 per second but higher frequencies are practicable. The space occupied is about 10" × 8" × 10" and the output approximately ½ kW.

In the transformer just described the break is exposed to the atmosphere and a slow oxidation of the mercury takes place. This disadvantage is overcome in the instrument shown in Fig. 10, which consists of a perforated metal box containing the condenser and charging inductance and carrying on the top a motor driving the break, and a transformer. The mercury break is of a kind to be described and operates on the

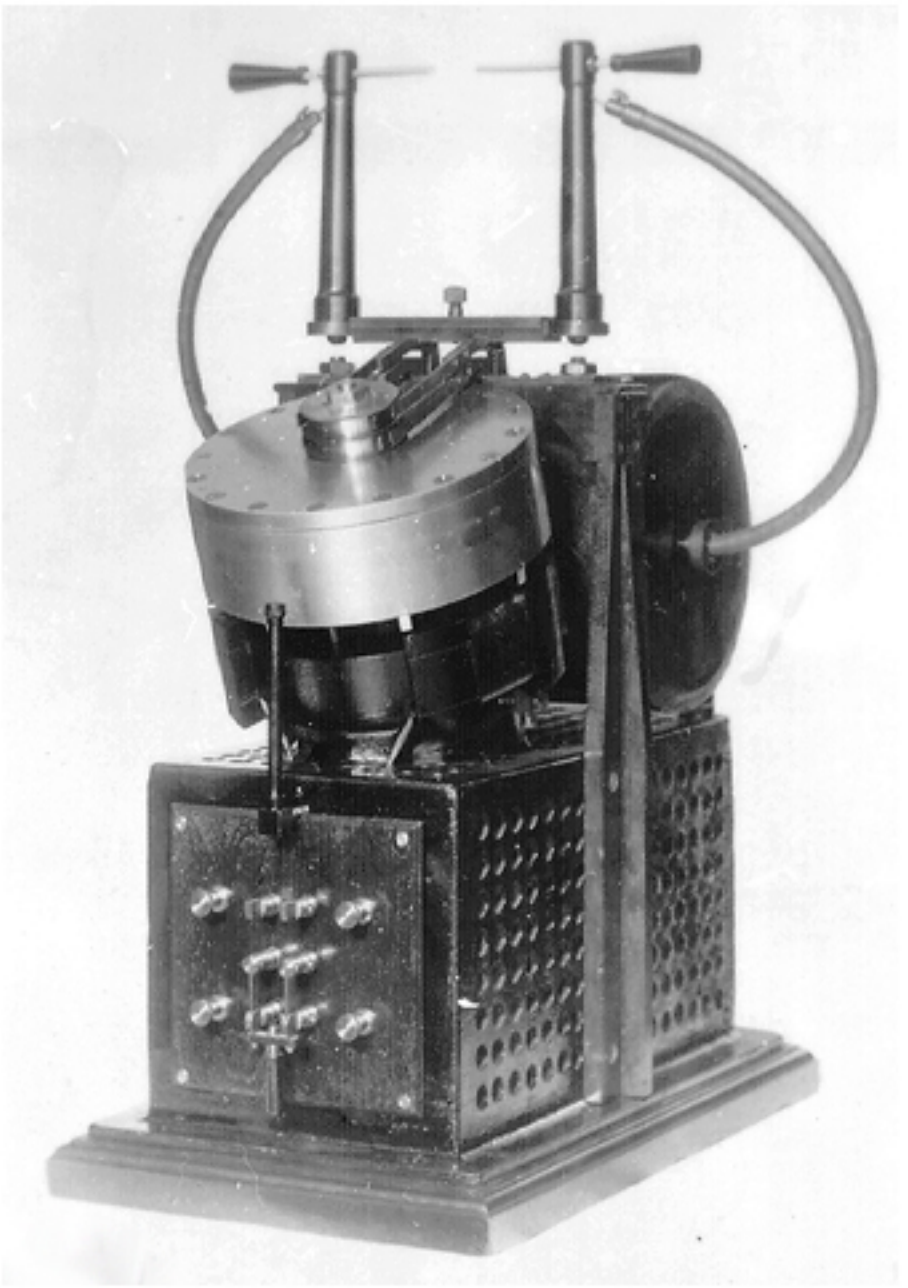

Fig. 12.

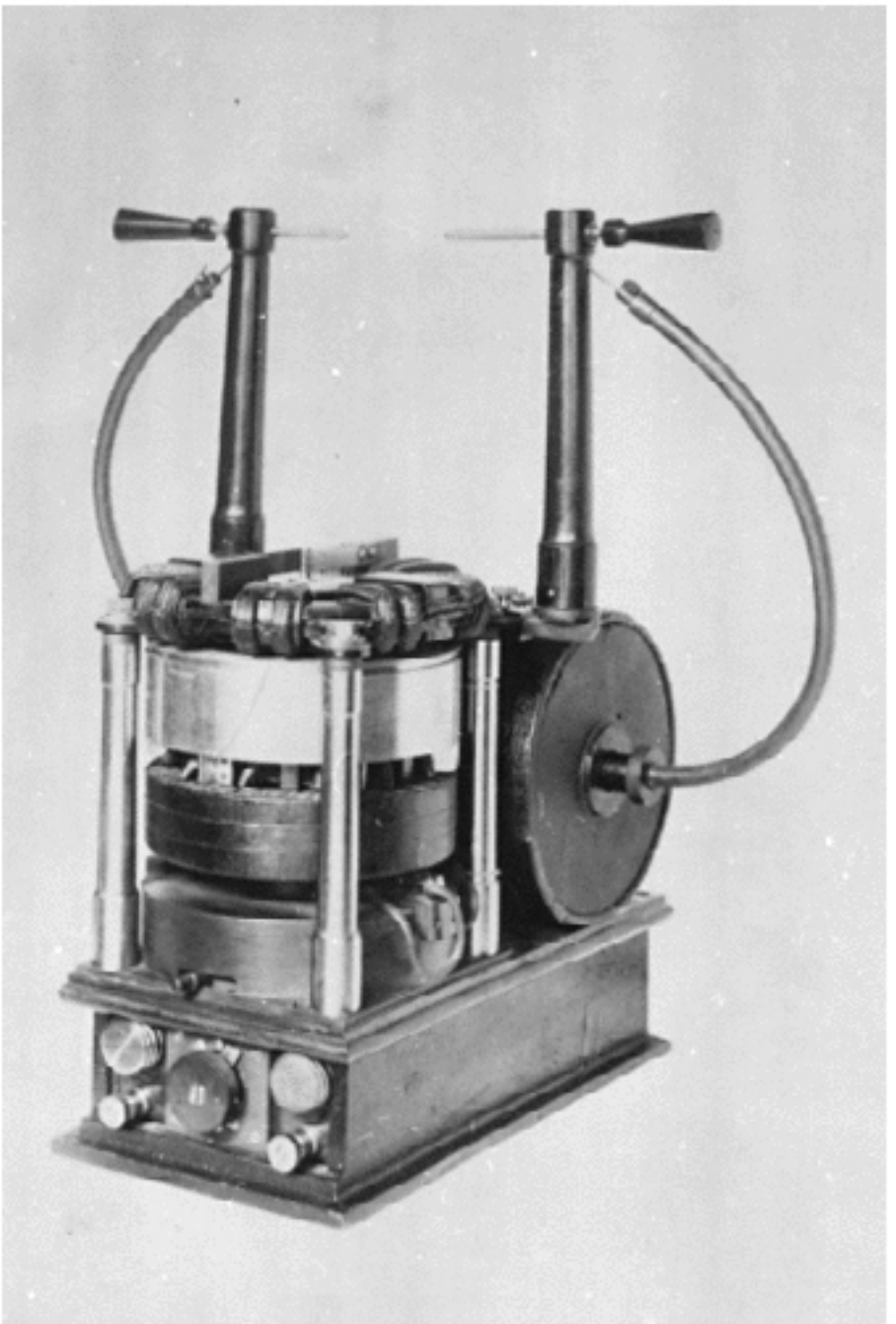

Fig. 13.

principle of a jet which establishes, intermittently, contact with a rotating wheel in the interior of the pulley. The stationary parts are supported in the vessel on a bar passing through the long hollow shaft of the motor and a mercury seal is employed to effect hermetic closure of the chamber enclosing the circuit controller. The current is led into the interior of the pulley through two sliding rings on the top which are in series with the condenser and primary. The exclusion of the oxygen is a decided improvement, the deterioration of the metal and attendant trouble being eliminated and perfect working conditions continuously maintained.

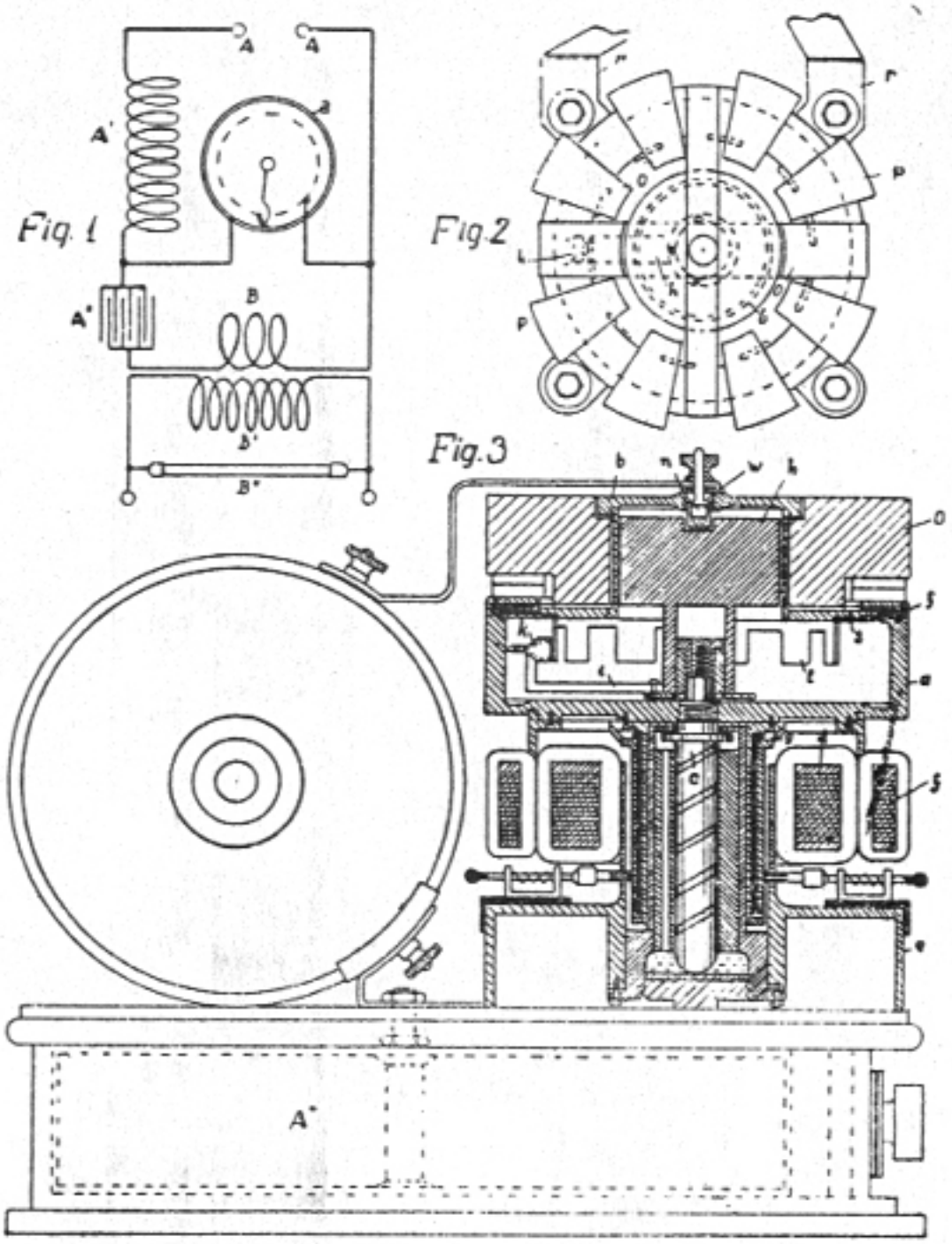

Fig. 14.

Fig. 11 is a photograph of a similar oscillator with hermetically inclosed mercury break. In this machine the stationary parts of the interrupter in the interior of the pulley were supported on a tube through which was led an insulated wire connecting to one terminal of the break while the other was in contact with the vessel. The sliding rings were, in this manner, avoided and the construction simplified. The instrument was designed for oscillations of lower tension and frequency requiring primary currents of comparatively smaller amperage and was used to excite other resonant circuits.

Fig. 12 shows an improved form of oscillator of the kind described in Fig. 10, in which the supporting bar through the hollow motor shaft was done away with, the device pumping the mercury being kept in position by gravity, as will be more fully

explained with reference to another figure. Both the capacity of the condenser and primary turns were made variable with the view of producing oscillations of several frequencies.

Fig. 13 is a photographic view of another form of oscillatory transformer with hermetically sealed mercury interrupter, and Fig. 14 diagrams showing the circuit

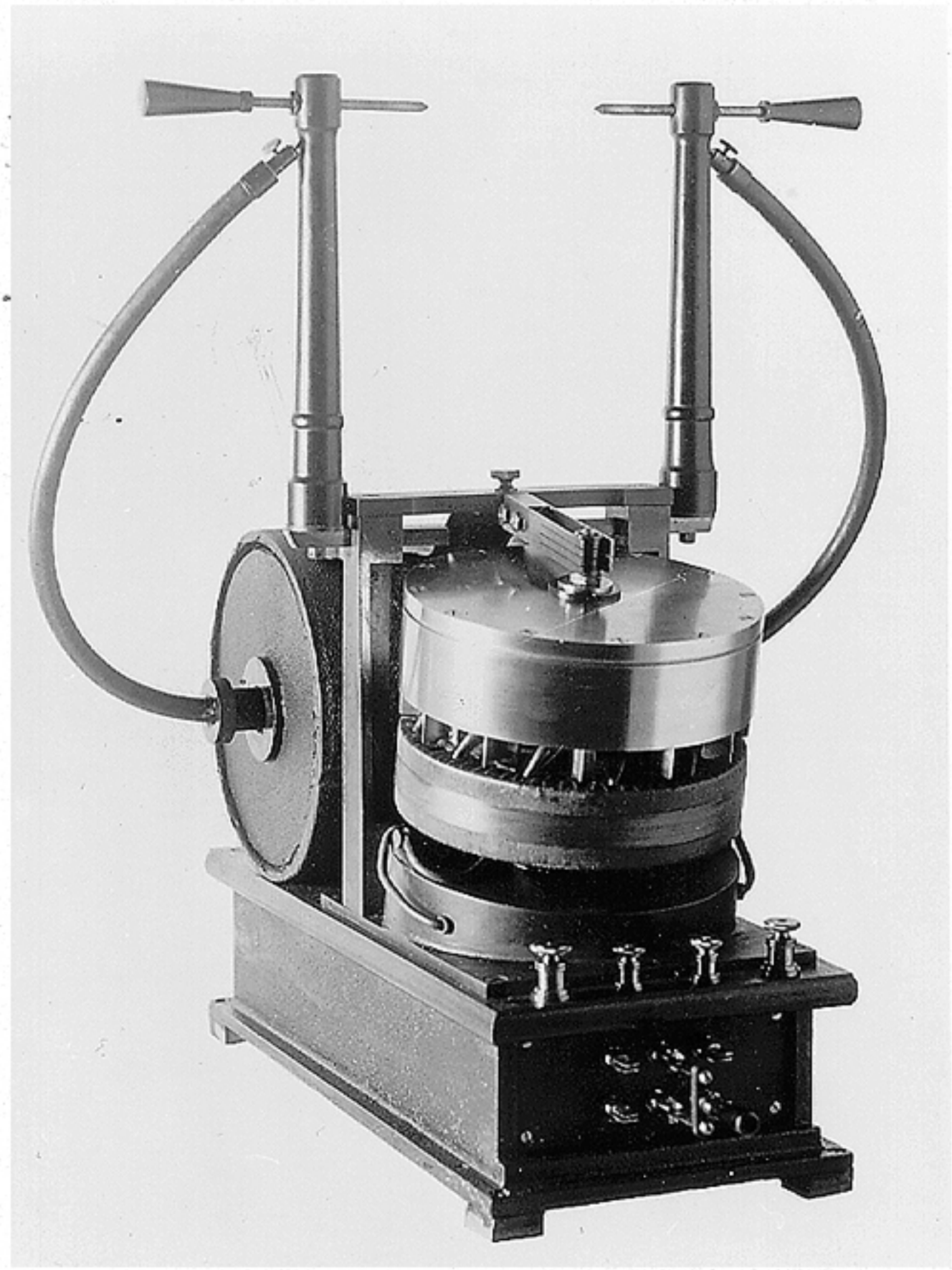

Fig. 15.

connections and arrangement of parts reproduced from my patent, No. 609,245, of August 16, 1898, describing this particular device. The condenser, inductance, transformer and circuit controller are disposed as before, but the latter is of different construction, which will be clear from an inspection of Fig. 14. The hollow pulley *a* is secured to a shaft *c* which is mounted in a vertical bearing passing through the stationary

field magnet *d* of the motor. In the interior of the vessel is supported, on frictionless bearings, a body *h* of magnetic material which is surrounded by a dome *b* in the center of a laminated iron ring, with pole pieces *oo* wound with energizing coils *p*. The ring is supported on four columns and, when magnetized, keeps the body *h* in position while the pulley is rotated. The latter is of steel, but the dome is preferably made of German silver burnt black by acid or nickeled. The body *h* carries a short tube *k* bent, as indicated, to catch the fluid as it is whirled around, and project it against the teeth

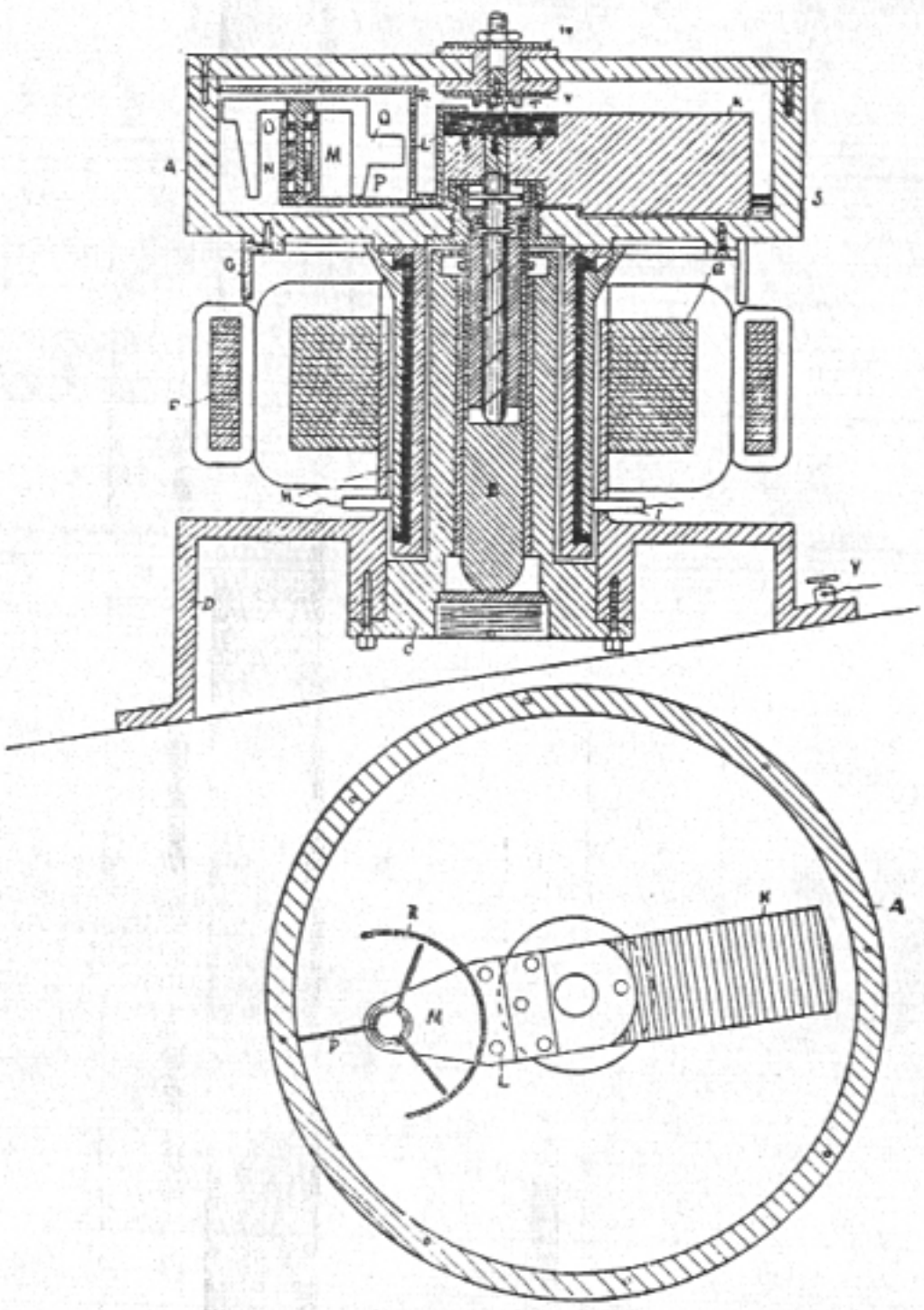

Fig. 16.

of a wheel fastened to the pulley. The wheel is insulated and contact from it to the external circuit is established through a mercury cup. As the pulley is rapidly rotated a jet of the fluid is thrown against the wheel, *thus making and breaking contact about* 1,000 *times per second.* The instrument works silently and, owing to the absence of all deteriorating agents, keeps continually clean and in perfect condition. The number of interruptions per second may be much greater, however, so as to make the currents suitable for wireless telephony and like purposes.

A modified form of oscillator is represented in Figs. 15 and 16, the former being a photographic view and the latter a diagrammatic illustration showing the arrangement

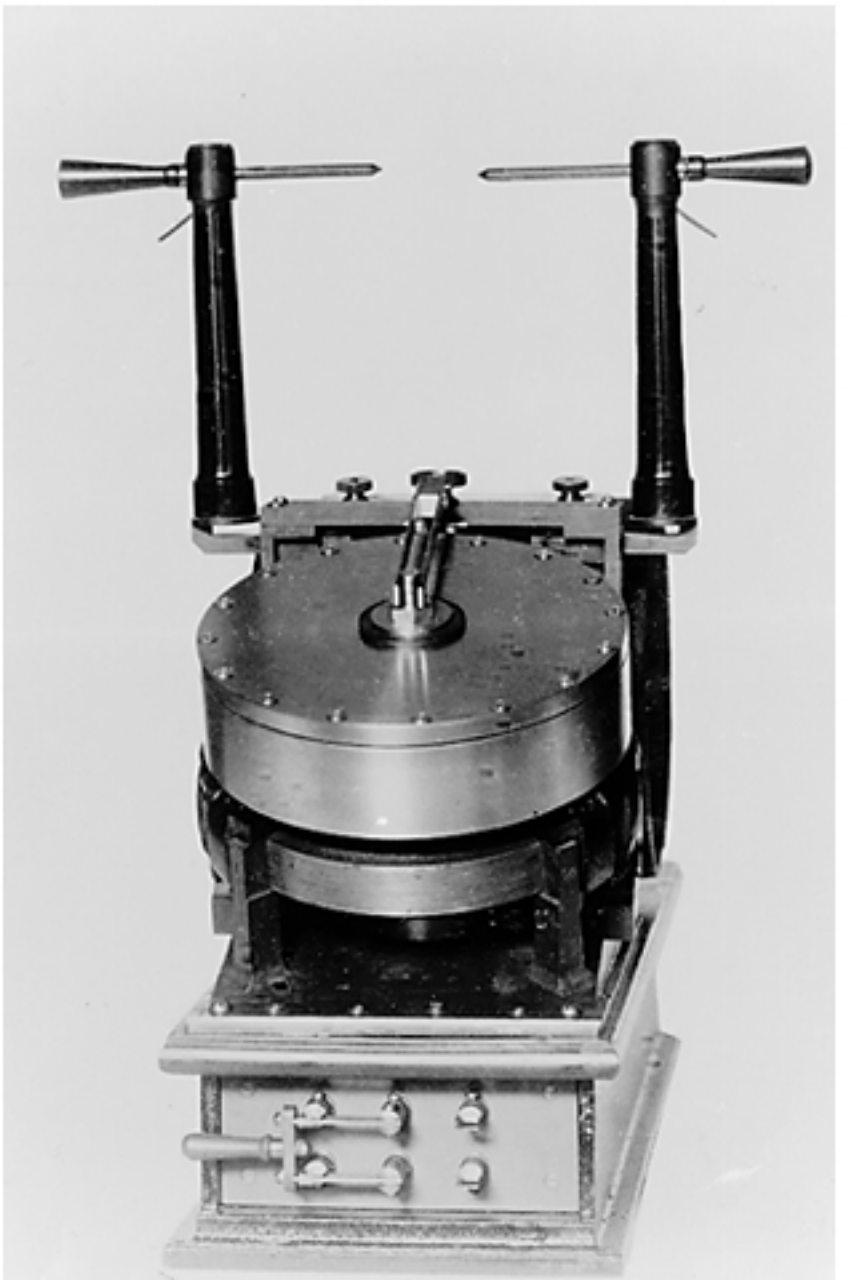

Fig. 17.

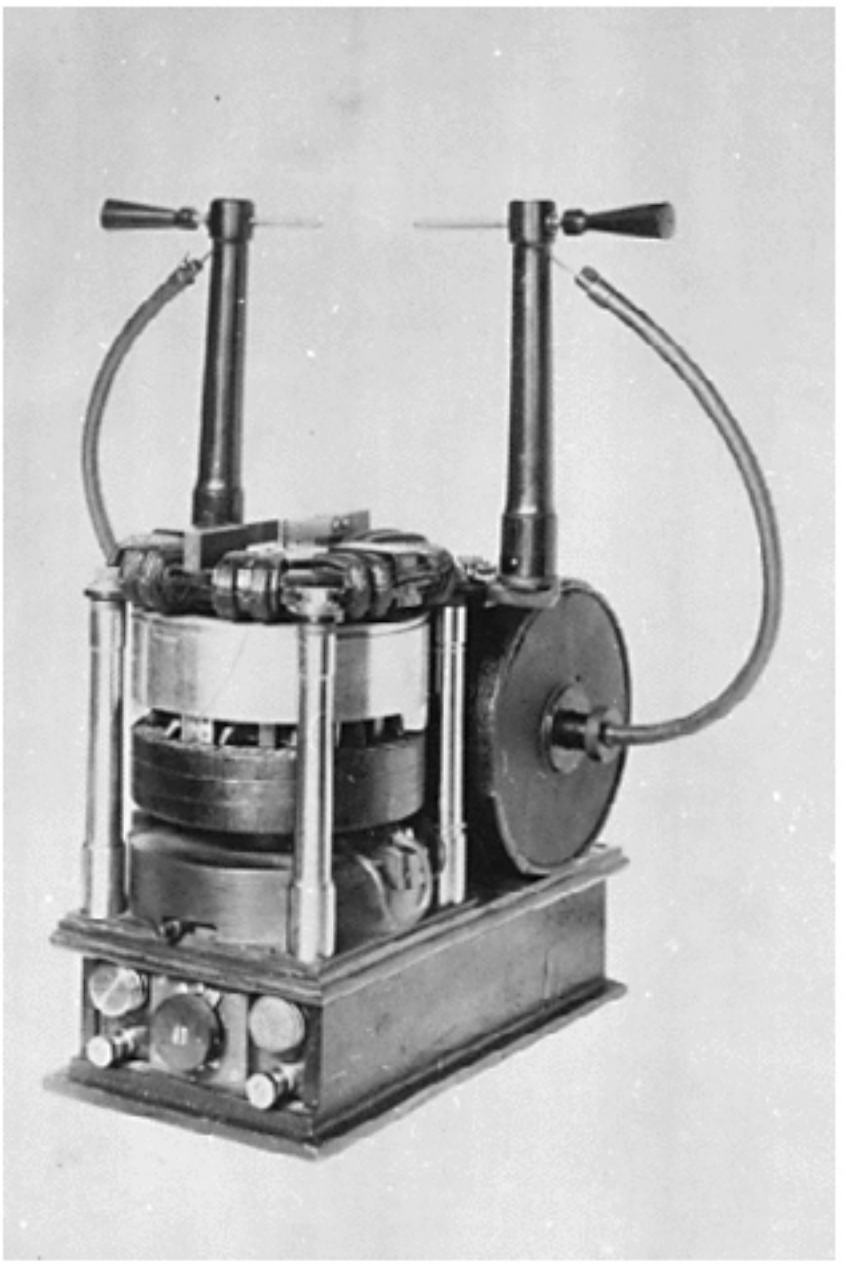

Fig. 18.

of the interior parts of the controller. In this instance the shaft *b* carrying the vessel *a* is hollow and supports, in frictionless bearings, a spindle *j* to which is fastened a weight *k*. Insulated from the latter, but mechanically fixed to it, is a curved arm L upon which is supported, freely rotatable, a break-wheel with projections QQ. The wheel is in electrical connection with the external circuit through a mercury cup and an insulated plug supported from the top of the pulley. Owing to the inclined position of the motor the weight *k* keeps the break-wheel in place by the force of gravity and as the pulley is rotated the circuit, including the condenser and primary coil of the transformer, is rapidly made and broken.

Fig. 17 shows a similar instrument in which, however, the make and break device is a jet of mercury impinging against an insulated toothed wheel carried on an insulated stud in the center of the cover of the pulley as shown. Connection to the condenser circuit is made by brushes bearing on this plug.

Fig. 18 is a photograph of another transformer with a mercury circuit controller of the wheel type, modified in some features on which it is unnecessary to dwell.

These are but a few of the oscillatory transformers I have perfected and constitute only a small part of my high frequency apparatus of which I hope to give a full description, when I shall have freed myself of pressing duties, at some future date.

DEVELOPMENTS IN PRACTICE AND ART OF TELEPHOTOGRAPHY*

The recent successful experiments by Edouard Belin of Paris in the transmission of photographs between New York City and St. Louis, a distance of 1000 miles, have naturally aroused new interest in this rather old art. Mr. Belin's apparatus has been examined with a knowledge of previous efforts in that direction, and it must be admitted that the French inventor has achieved a marked improvement. It is true that his apparatus in many of its features is old and well known, but all the details have been worked out skilfully and his photographic reproductions are not only good likenesses of the originals but are expressive in no small degree. In common with other arts the transmission of pictures to a distance has been brought to its present state of perfection by slow and gradual improvements effected in the course of 77 years. The literature on the subject is quite voluminous and difficult to peruse, as the articles are published in various languages and scattered through numerous periodicals. Only one complete and exhaustive work has been published in German by Dr. Arthur Korn of Munich and Dr. Bruno Glatzel.

FIRST PATENTS TAKEN OUT MANY YEARS AGO

The original idea is due to Alexander Bain, a Scotch mechanician, who secured a British patent disclosing the invention in 1843. His plan contemplated the transmission of printed letters, drawings and pictures in the following way: At the sending station a holder with insulated metal points was arranged to glide in the direction of the lines over a frame resting on the printed page to be reproduced at a distance. Within this frame, and at right angles to its plane, a number of short wires were imbedded in sealing wax, their lower ends being in contact with the letters which in turn were all electrically connected. As the holder moved back and forth the insulated metal points would be brought in and out of contact with the upper ends of the short wires, thus controlling the flow of the current through them. Each metal point was joined by a special line to the receiving station where there was a similar holder made to slide over chemically prepared paper laid on a grounded metal plate. When a battery at the transmitting end was connected with one of its poles to the letters and the other to the ground the current impulses traversing the line wires and the chemical paper would cause changes of color in the latter, thus reproducing the characters. A great number of points and line wires were required to attain satisfactory results and, realizing this objection, Bain proposed to avail himself of only one wire, but did not give full information in this regard. Subsequently Bonnelli and other inventors made improvements in his apparatus, reducing the number of the wires to a few. There is no doubt that, despite the manifest crudity of this system, it was quite capable of being used

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* Electrical Review, Dec. 11, 1920.

commercially in the transmission of type as well as drawings and pictures and may yet be found valuable.

The first practical success was achieved by an Englishman, Frederick Collier Bakewell, who secured a British patent in 1847 on a process, some features of which have proved to be indispensable in later years. He employed as a transmitter a cylinder on which the characters were written with insulating ink. A metal point bore on the cylinder and advanced slightly with each revolution of the same exactly as in the older form of phonograph. A similar cylinder covered with chemical paper and equipped with a sliding point was provided at the receiving station. The cylinders being grounded and a battery included in the line wire connecting the transmitting and receiving points, the passage of the current resulted in a discoloration of the paper and reproduction of the written characters at the receiving end. Considering the period Bakewell's apparatus was surprisingly perfect, particularly in the feature of maintaining the rotating cylinders in synchronism for which purpose he provided an automatic as well as a hand correction. A controversy was waged between Bakewell and Bain for the honor of priority, but in this respect there can be no mistake. Bain was the originator of the idea while Bakewell was the first to carry it out successfully.

USE OF CHEMICAL PAPER CONSIDERED IMPRACTICAL

The use of chemical paper was considered objectionable, and in 1851 Hipp eliminated it, producing the impressions at the receiver with a magnet actuated by the transmitted impulses. It is curious, though, to observe that the modern art depends entirely on this very device. In 1855 Casselli modified the Bakewell apparatus by employing carefully synchronized pendulums at the transmitting and receiving stations, thus replacing the rotary motion by a to-and-fro movement as in the Bain arrangement. Casselli seems to have had more enterprise than his predecessors, and the apparatus which he perfected in 1860 was actually used with some success for a short time in service between Paris and several other cities in France. Its abandonment was probably due to the slowness of transmission and lack of demand for this kind of facility. It is singular that many treatises on physics and other text books mention Casselli while ignoring Bain and Bakewell.

Shortly after this Meyer perfected a system which was used with success in France, and may be fairly considered as the first thoroughly practical application of ideas in this field. A curious improvement was made by Gérard who, in 1865, proposed the use of flat disks in place of the cylinders of Bakewell. Ever since one wire was adopted for the transmission it became an imperative necessity to maintain perfect synchronism between the transmitter and receiver, and many inventors devoted their energy to this task. D'Arlincourt resorted to tuning forks, and his idea was subsequently carried out in a more perfect manner by Lacour. At about this time the invention reached America, and in 1870 Sawyer brought his ingenuity to bear on the evolution of a process in which he employed zinc clichés. These were very reliable and constituted a signal advance.

In 1880 Edison devised an apparatus on the principle of that used by Sawyer, except that the impressions were produced on paper in bas-relief. This idea was carried further by Dennison in instruments of the reciprocating type. Through the introduction of the Tesla alternating system of power transmission a novel means was afforded for operating transmitters and receivers. The use of synchronous motors was proposed first in 1893 by Sheehy.

DEVELOPMENTS PERMIT USE OF PHOTOGRAPHIC FILMS

In all cases without exception it was necessary to provide an actual print, drawing or sketch to be transmitted until Lenoir introduced photographic films into the art, making possible the transmission of any kind of picture. This was a great step forward, but the honor of the first practical success belongs to an American engineer, N. Amstutz, who used photographic sending clichés in relief for the first time and with complete success. Amstutz was a true pioneer, and his improvement is essential in the carrying out of the modern processes. It is true that as early as 1865, a Frenchman, Hubert, had suggested the use of letters written with thick ink, but this was of little value, and Amstutz was undoubtedly the first to produce and use the clichés on which the up-to-date art vitally depends. Perfectly satisfactory demonstrations were made with his devices in this country more than 20 years ago, when pictures were transmitted over telegraph wires to great distances. Samples of his work have been preserved which clearly show how much be was ahead of his time.

Following Amstutz, Dunlany, Palmer, Mills and other American inventors took up picture transmission with more or less success. By this time the necessity presented itself for increasing the rapidity of the process by greater speed of the devices as well as multiplex transmission. The Belgian inventor, Carbonelle, made an important improvement in this direction when he introduced the telephone diaphragm carrying a stylus for making the impressions.

Of all inventors, however, Dr. Korn was the most successful as well as prolific in the suggestion of improvements, his photographic method of recording carried out in 1903 being the most significant. The general idea of photographic recording had been already advanced by George Little, and a few years later Dillon took out a patent involving the use of sensitized paper and a mirror reflecting a beam of light on the same. But it is obvious that at that time it would have been hardly practicable to use this suggestion, as photography was not sufficiently advanced. In illustration of this it may be mentioned that in 1892 the attention of the scientific world was directed to a wonderfully sensitive receiver, consisting of an electron stream maintained in a delicately balanced condition in a vacuum bulb, by means of which it was proposed to use photography in the transmission of telegraphic and telephonic messages through the Atlantic cables, and later also by wireless. This proposal was met by unsurmountable objections to the photographic method. Indeed, the Belin process has been rendered possible largely through the great improvements in the sensitive films which have been evolved in response to the urgent demands of the motion picture and also under the stimulus of the recent war.

SELENIUM CELL AND VACUUM TUBE USED TO TRANSMIT AND RECEIVE

In the apparatus invented by Dr. Korn a selenium cell is used at the transmitter to vary the intensity of the sending current, and at the receiving station he employs a vacuum tube of high intensity which throws its light through a fine slot on a sensitive plate. The tube is excited by high-frequency currents supplied from a Tesla transformer and may be flashed up many thousand times per second. The motion of the receiver element is effected either by a wire galvanometer, oscillograph or telephone diaphragm. The Korn system has been used for some years past with success in Germany and other countries. In fact, it has been operated for some time even by wireless. Patents on this mode of transmission have been granted in 1898 and 1899 to Küster and G. Williams, but the arrangements involved the employment of Hertz waves and were impracticable. Later Frederick Braun, Pansa and Knudsen secured patents which, however, are equally defective. Success in this direction has been achieved

so far only by Korn, Berjonneau and T. Baker. Invariably the inventors employ a wire galvanometer which is especially suitable for great speed. Telautographic transmission by similar means through wires as well as wireless is now common and is effected by employing a transmitter of two components, the original idea of which is due to an Englishman, Jones, who made that suggestion as early as 1855.

PRESENT DEVELOPMENTS INVOLVE MANY OLD PRINCIPLES

To this short story of picture transmission Belin has contributed the latest chapter. The process he has finally adopted after many years of persistent effort involves the use of two cylinders rotating in synchronism — one for transmitting and the other for reproducing. The former is of copper and is prepared for operation by having its surface coated with a thin shellac solution, wrapping a carbon print of the photograph about it with its face to the cylinder and immersing the whole in hot water, this causing the gelatine to adhere to the cylinder surface in proportion to the degree of blackness so that a likeness of the print in bas-relief is obtained. On this cylinder bears the stylus of a microphone diaphragm which is slowly moved forward by the revolution of the cylinder as in a phonograph. In this manner the pressure of the carbon contacts is varied in conformity with the changes of the surface, and the microphone currents pass over the transmitting wire to the receiving station where they cause corresponding deflections of a mirror forming part of a highly sensitive dead-beat oscillograph. A strong beam of light reflected from the mirror traverses a screen graduated from full transparency to opacity and is led through a microscopic opening to the sensitive film wrapped around the receiving cylinder. Special provisions are made to keep the cylinders exactly in step as this is indispensable to good performance. The film is, of course, protected against the external light, and when the operation is completed it is developed as usual so that either a positive or negative print is obtained according to the position of the screen. There is nothing in his apparatus which is fundamentally novel; in fact, every feature of the same has been disclosed in the prior art. Even the graduated screen, which is one of the most essential parts, has been employed before by Dr. Korn. But Mr. Belin has displayed considerable ingenuity and skill in all the details, and his reproduced photographs are most excellent. There is every reason to believe that his efforts will be rewarded by an extensive practical application of his devices.

TELEVISION TO BE NEXT STEP IN PROGRESS OF TRANSMISSION

The transmission of photographs constitutes only the first step towards the immeasurably greater achievement of television. By this is meant instantaneous transmission of visual impressions to any distance by wire or wireless. It is a subject to which I have devoted more than 25 years of close study. Two of the impediments which years ago seemed unsurmountable have been successfully overcome, but great difficulties are still in the way. These are encountered in the inertia of the sensitive cells and the enormous speed required to make possible the vision of persons, objects or scenes as in life. It is the problem of constructing a transmitter analogous to the lens and retina of the eye, providing a medium of conveyance corresponding to the optic nerve, and a receiver organized similarly to the brain. It is a gigantic task, but I am confident that the world will witness its actual accomplishment in the near future.

II
ARTICLES ON SOME GENERAL PROBLEMS

ON ELECTRICITY*

THE ADDRESS ON THE OCCASION OF THE COMMEMORATION OF THE INTRODUCTION OF NIAGARA FALLS POWER IN BUFFALO AT THE ELLICOTT CLUB, JANUARY 12, 1897.

I have scarcely had courage enough to address an audience on a few unavoidable occasions, and the experience of this evening, even as disconnected from the cause of our meeting, is quite novel to me. Although in those few instances, of which I have retained agreeable memory, my words have met with a generous reception, I never deceived myself, and knew quite well that my success was not due to any excellency in the rhetorical or demonstrative art. Nevertheless, my sense of duty to respond to the request with which I was honored a few days ago was strong enough to overcome my very grave apprehensions in regard to my ability of doing justice to the topic assigned to me. It is true, at times — even now, as I speak — my mind feels full of the subject, but I know that, as soon as I shall attempt expression, the fugitive conceptions will vanish, and I shall experience certain well known sensations of abandonment, chill and silence. I can see already your disappointed countenances and can read in them the painful regret of the mistake in your choice.

These remarks, gentlemen, are not made with the selfish desire of winning your kindness and indulgence on my shortcomings, but with the honest intention of offering you an apology for your disappointment. Nor are they made — as you might be disposed to think — in that playful spirit which, to the enjoyment of the listeners, is often displayed by belated speakers. On the contrary, I am deeply earnest in my wish that I were capable of having the fire of eloquence kindled in me, that I might dwell in adequate terms on this fascinating science of electricity, on the marvelous development which electrical annals have recorded and which, as one of the speakers justly remarked, stamp this age as the Electrical Age, and particularly on the great event we are commemorating this day. Unfortunately, this my desire must remain unfulfilled. but I am hopeful that in my formless and incomplete statements, among the few ideas and facts I shall mention there may be something of interest and usefulness, something befitting this unique occasion.

Gentlemen, there are a number of features clearly discernible in, and characteristic of, human intellectual progress in more recent times — features which afford great comfort to the minds of all those who have really at heart the advancement and welfare of mankind.

First of all, the inquiry, by the aid of the microscope and electrical instruments of precision, into the nature of our organs and senses, and particularly of those through which we commune directly with the outside world and through which knowledge is conveyed to our minds, has revealed their exact construction and mode of action, which

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* Electrical Review, Jan. 27, 1897.

is in conformity with simple and well established physical principles and laws. Hence the observations we make and the facts we ascertain by their help are *real* facts and observations, and our knowledge is *true* knowledge. To illustrate: Our knowledge of form, for instance, is dependent upon the positive fact that light propagates in straight lines, and, owing to this, the image formed by a lens is exactly similar to the object seen. Indeed, my thoughts in such fields and directions have led me to the conclusion that most all human knowledge is based on this simple truth, since practically every idea or conception — and therefore all knowledge — presupposes visual impressions. But if light would not propagate in accordance with the law mentioned, but in conformity with any other law which we might presently conceive, whereby not only the image might not bear any likeness to the object seen, but even the images of the same object at different times or distances might not resemble each other, then our knowledge of form would be very defective, for then we might see, for example, a three-cornered figure as a six or twelve-cornered one. With the clear understanding of the mechanism and mode of action of our organs, we remove all doubts as to the *reality* and *truth* of the impressions received from the outside, and thus we bar out — forever, we may hope — that unhealthy speculation and skepticism into which formerly even strong minds were apt to fall.

Let me tell you of another comforting feature. The progress in a measured time is nowadays more rapid and greater than it ever was before. This is quite in accordance with the fundamental law of motion, which commands acceleration and increase of momentum or accumulation of energy under the action of a continuously acting force and tendency, and is the more true as every advance weakens the elements tending to produce friction and retardation. For, after all, what *is* progress, or — more correctly — development, or evolution, if not a movement, infinitely complex and often unscrutinizable, it is true, but nevertheless exactly determined in quantity as well as in quality of motion by the physical conditions and laws governing? This feature of more recent development is best shown in the rapid merging together of the various arts and sciences by the obliteration of the hard and fast lines of separation, of borders, some of which only a few years ago seemed unsurpassable, and which, like veritable Chinese walls, surrounded every department of inquiry and barred progress. A sense of connectedness of the various apparently widely different forces and phenomena we observe is taking possession of our minds, a sense of deeper understanding of nature as a whole, which, though not yet quite clear and defined, is keen enough to inspire us with the confidence of vast realizations in the near future.

But these features chiefly interest the scientific man, the thinker and reasoner. There is another feature which affords us still more satisfaction and enjoyment, and which is of still more universal interest, chiefly because of its bearing upon the welfare of mankind. Gentlemen, there is an influence which is getting strong and stronger day by day, which shows itself more and more in all departments of human activity, an influence most fruitful and beneficial — the influence of the artist. It was a happy day for the mass of humanity when the artist felt the desire of becoming a physician, an electrician, an engineer or mechanician or — whatnot — a mathematician or a financier; for it was he who wrought all these wonders and grandeur we are witnessing. It was he who abolished that small, pedantic, narrow-grooved school teaching which made of an aspiring student a galley-slave, and he who allowed freedom in the choice of subject of study according to one's pleasure and inclination, and so facilitated development.

Some, who delight in the exercise of the powers of criticism, call this an assymetrical development, a degeneration or departure from the normal, or even a degradation of the race. But they are mistaken. This is a welcome state of things, a

blessing, a wise subdivision of labors, the establishment of conditions most favorable to progress. Let one concentrate all his energies in one single great effort, let him perceive a single truth, even though he be consumed by the sacred fire, then millions of less gifted men can easily follow. Therefore it is not as much quantity as quality of work which determines the magnitude of the progress.

It was the artist, too, who awakened that broad philanthropic spirit which, even in old ages, shone in the teachings of noble reformers and philosophers, that spirit which makes men in all departments and positions work not as much for any material benefit or compensation — though reason may command this also — but chiefly for the sake of success, for the pleasure there is in achieving it and for the good they might be able to do thereby to their fellow-men. Through his influence types of men are now pressing forward, impelled by a deep love for their study, men who are doing wonders in their respective branches, whose chief aim and enjoyment is the acquisition and spread of knowledge, men who look far above earthly things, whose banner is Excelsior! Gentlemen, let us honor the artist, let us thank him, let us drink his health!

Now, in all these enjoyable and elevating features which characterize modern intellectual development, electricity, the expansion of the science of electricity, has been a most potent factor. Electrical science has revealed to us the true nature of light, has provided us with innumerable appliances and instruments of precision, and has thereby vastly added to the exactness of our knowledge. Electrical science has disclosed to us the more intimate relation existing between widely different forces and phenomena and has thus led us to a more complete comprehension of Nature and its many manifestations to our senses. Electrical science, too, by its fascination, by its promises of immense realizations, of wonderful possibilities chiefly in humanitarian respects, has attracted the attention and enlisted the energies of the artist; for where is there a field in which his God-given powers would be of greater benefit to his fellow-men than this unexplored, almost virgin, region, where, like in a silent forest, a thousand voices respond to every call?

With these comforting features, with these cheering prospects, we need not look with any feeling of incertitude or apprehension into the future. There are pessimistic men, who, with anxious faces, continuously whisper in your ear that the nations are secretly arming — arming to the teeth; that they are going to pounce upon each other at a given signal and destroy themselves; that they are all trying to outdo that victorious, great, wonderful German army, against which there is no resistance, for every German has the discipline in his very blood — every German is a soldier. But these men are in error. Look only at our recent experience with the British in that Venezuela difficulty. Two other nations might have crashed together, but not the Anglo-Saxons; they are too far ahead. The men who tell you this are ignoring forces which are continually at work, silently but resistlessly — forces which say Peace!

There is the genuine artist, who inspires us with higher and nobler sentiments, and makes us abhor strife and carnage. There is the engineer, who bridges gulfs and chasms, and facilitates contact and equalization of the heterogeneous masses of humanity. There is the mechanic, who comes with his beautiful time and energy-saving appliances, who perfects his flying machine, not to drop a bag of dynamite on a city or vessel, but to facilitate transport and travel. There, again, is the chemist, who opens new resources and makes existence more pleasant and secure; and there is the electrician, who sends his messages of peace to all parts of the globe. The time will not be long in coming when those men who are turning their ingenuity to inventing quick-firing guns, torpedoes and other implements of destruction — all the while assuring you that it is for the love and good of humanity — will find no takers for their odious tools, and will realize that, had they used their inventive talent in other directions, they might have reaped a far better reward than the sestertia received. And then, and none too

soon, the cry will be echoed everywhere. Brethren, stop these high-handed methods of the strong, these remnants of barbarism so inimical to progress! Give that valiant warrior opportunities for displaying a more commendable courage than that he shows when, intoxicated with victory, he rushes to the destruction of his fellow-men. Let him toil day and night with a small chance of achieving and yet be unflinching; let him challenge the dangers of exploring the heights of the air and the depths of the sea; let him brave the dread of the plague, the heat of the tropic desert and the ice of the polar region. Turn your energies to warding off the common enemies and dangers, the perils that are all around you, that threaten you in the air you breathe, in the water you drink, in the food you consume. Is it not strange, is it not shame, that we, beings in the highest state of development in this our world, beings with such immense powers of thought and action, we, the masters of the globe, should be absolutely at the mercy of our unseen foes, that we should not know whether a swallow of food or drink brings joy and life or pain and destruction to us! In this most modern and sensible warfare, in which the bacteriologist leads, the services electricity will render will prove invaluable. The economical production of high-frequency currents, which is now an accomplished fact, enables us to generate easily and in large quantities ozone for the disinfection of the water and the air, while certain novel radiations recently discovered give hope of finding effective remedies against ills of microbic origin, which have heretofore withstood all efforts of the physician. But let me turn to a more pleasant theme.

I have referred to the merging together of the various sciences or departments of research, and to a certain perception of intimate connection between the manifold and apparently different forces and phenomena. Already we know, chiefly through the efforts of a bold pioneer, that light, radiant heat, electrical and magnetic actions are closely related, not to say identical. The chemist professes that the effects of combination and separation of bodies he observes are due to electrical forces, and the physician and physiologist will tell you that even life's progress is electrical. Thus electrical science has gained a universal meaning, and with right this age can claim the name "Age of Electricity."

I wish much to tell you on this occasion — I may say I actually burn for desire of telling you — what electricity really *is,* but I have very strong reasons, which my co-workers will best appreciate, to follow a precedent established by a great and venerable philosopher, and I shall not dwell on this purely scientific aspect of electricity.

There is another reason for the claim which I have before stated which is even more potent than the former, and that is the immense development in all electrical branches in more recent years and its influence upon other departments of science and industry. To illustrate this influence I only need to refer to the steam or gas engine. For more than half a century the steam engine has served the innumerable wants of man. The work it was called to perform was of such variety and the conditions in each case were so different that, of necessity, a great many types of engines have resulted. In the vast majority of cases the problem put before the engineer was not, as it should have been, the broad one of converting the greatest possible amount of heat energy into mechanical power, but it was rather the specific problem of obtaining the mechanical power in such form as to be best suitable for general use. As the reciprocating motion of the piston was not convenient for practical purposes, except in very few instances, the piston was connected to a crank, and thus rotating motion was obtained, which was more suitable and preferable, though it involved numerous disadvantages incident to the crude and wasteful means employed. But until quite recently there were at the disposal of the engineer, for the transformation and transmission of the motion of the piston, no better means than rigid mechanical connections. The past few years have brought forcibly to the attention of the builder the electric motor, with its ideal features. Here was a mode of transmitting mechanical motion simpler by far, and

also much more economical. Had this mode been perfected earlier, there can be no doubt that, of the many different types of engine, the majority would not exist, for just as soon as an engine was coupled with an electric generator a type was produced capable of almost universal use. From this moment on there was no necessity to endeavor to perfect engines of special designs capable of doing special kinds of work. The engineer's task became now to concentrate all his efforts upon one type, to perfect one kind of engine — the best, the universal, the engine of the immediate future; namely, the one which is best suitable for the generation of electricity. The first efforts in this direction gave a strong impetus to the development of the reciprocating high-speed engine, and also to the turbine, which latter was a type of engine of very limited practical usefulness, but became, to a certain extent, valuable in connection with the electric generator and motor. Still, even the former engine, though impoved in many particulars, is not radically changed, and even now has the same objectionable features and limitations. To do away with these as much as possible, a new type of engine is being perfected in which more favorable conditions for economy are maintained, which expands the working fluid with utmost rapidity and loses little heat on the walls, an engine stripped of all usual regulating mechanism — packings, oilers and other appendages — and forming part of an electric generator; and in this type, I may say, I have implicit faith.

The gas or explosive engine has been likewise profoundly affected by the commercial introduction of electric light and power, particularly in quite recent years. The engineer is turning his energies more and more in this direction, being attracted by the prospect of obtaining a higher thermodynamic efficiency. Much larger engines are now being built, the construction is constantly improved, and a novel type of engine, best suitable for the generation of electricity, is being rapidly evolved.

There are many other lines of manufacture and industry in which the influence of electrical development has been even more powerfully felt. So, for instance, the manufacture of a great variety of articles of metal, and especially of chemical products. The welding of metals by electricity, though involving a wasteful process, has, nevertheless, been accepted as a legitimate art, while the manufacture of metal sheet, seamless tubes and the like affords promise of much improvement. We are coming gradually, but surely, to the fusion of bodies and reduction of all kinds of ores — even of iron ores — by the use of electricity, and in each of these departments great realizations are probable. Again, the economical conversion of ordinary currents of supply into high-frequency currents opens up new possibilities, such as the combination of the atmospheric nitrogen and the production of its compounds; for instance, ammonia and nitric acid, and their salts, by novel processes.

The high-frequency currents also bring us to the realization of a more economical system of lighting; namely by means of phosphorescent bulbs or tubes, and enable us to produce with these appliances light of practically any candle-power. Following other developments in purely electrical lines, we have all rejoiced in observing the rapid strides made, which, in quite recent years, have been beyond our most sanguine expectations. To enumerate the many advances recorded is a subject for the reviewer, but I can not pass without mentioning the beautiful discoveries of Lenard and Roentgen, particularly the latter, which have found such a powerful response throughout the scientific world that they have made us forget, for a time, the great achievement of Linde in Germany, who has effected the liquefaction of air on an industrial scale by a process of continuous cooling: the discovery of argon by Lord Rayleigh and Professor Ramsay, and the splendid pioneer work of Professor Dewar in the field of low temperature research. The fact that the United States have contributed a very liberal share to this prodigious progress must afford to all of us great satisfaction. While honoring the workers in other countries and all those who, by profession or inclination,

are devoting themselves to strictly scientific pursuits, we have particular reasons to mention with gratitude the names of those who have so much contributed to this marvelous development of electrical industry in this country. Bell, who, by his admirable invention enabling us to transmit speech to great distances, has profoundly affected our commercial and social relations, and even our very mode of life; Edison, who, had he not done anything else beyond his early work in incandescent lighting, would have proved himself one of the greatest benefactors of the age; Westinghouse, the founder of the commercial alternating system; Brush, the great pioneer of arc lighting; Thomson, who gave us the first practical welding machine, and who, with keen sense, contributed very materially to the development of a number of scientific and industrial branches; Weston, who once led the world in dynamo design, and now leads in the construction of electric instruments; Sprague, who, with rare energy, mastered the problem and insured the success of practical electrical railroading; Acheson, Hall, Willson and others, who are creating new and revolutionizing industries here under our very eyes at Niagara. Nor is the work of these gifted men nearly finished at this hour. Much more is still to come, for, fortunately, most of them are still full of enthusiasm and vigor. All of these men and many more are untiringly at work investigating new regions and opening up unsuspected and promising fields. Weekly, if not daily, we learn through the journals of a new advance into some unexplored region, where at every step success beckons friendly, and leads the toiler on to hard and harder tasks.

But among all these many departments of research, these many branches of industry, new and old, which are being rapidly expanded, there is one dominating all others in importance — one which is of the greatest significance for the comfort and welfare, not to say for the existence, of mankind, and that is the electrical transmission of power. And in this most important of all fields, gentlemen, long afterwards, when time will have placed the events in their proper perspective, and assigned men to their deserved places, the great event we are commemorating to-day will stand out as designating a new and glorious epoch in the history of humanity — an epoch grander than that marked by the advent of the steam engine. We have many a monument of past ages; we have the palaces and pyramids, the temples of the Greek and the cathedrals of Christendom. In them is exemplified the power of men, the greatness of nations, the love of art and religious devotion. But that monument at Niagara has something of its own, more in accord with our present thoughts and tendencies. It is a monument worthy of our scientific age, a true monument of enlightenment and of peace. It signifies the subjugation of natural forces to the service of man, the discontinuance of barbarous methods, the relieving of millions from want and suffering. No matter what we attempt to do, no matter to what fields we turn our efforts, we are dependent on power. Our economists may propose more economical systems of administration and utilization of resources, our legislators may make wiser laws and treaties, it matters little; that kind of help can be only temporary. If we want to reduce poverty and misery, if we want to give to every deserving individual what is needed for a safe existence of an intelligent being, we want to provide more machinery, more power. Power is our mainstay, the primary source of our many-sided energies. With sufficient power at our disposal we can satisfy most of our wants and offer a guaranty for safe and comfortable existence to all, except perhaps to those who are the greatest criminals of all — the voluntarily idle.

The development and wealth of a city, the success of a nation, the progress of the whole human race, is regulated by the power available. Think of the victorious march of the British, the like of which history has never recorded. Apart from the qualities of the race, which have been of great moment, they own the conquest of the world to — coal. For with coal they produce their iron; coal furnishes them light and

heat; coal drives the wheels of their immense manufacturing establishments, and coal propels their conquering fleets. But the stores are being more and more exhausted, the labor is getting dearer and dearer, and the demand is continuously increasing. It must be clear to every one that soon some new source of power supply must be opened up, or that at least the present methods must be materially improved. A great deal is expected from a more economical utilization of the stored energy of the carbon in a battery; but while the attainment of such a result would be hailed as a great achievement, it would not be as much of an advance towards the ultimate and permanent method of obtaining power as some engineers seem to believe. By reasons both of economy and convenience we are driven to the general adoption of a system of energy supply from central stations, and for such purposes the beauties of the mechanical generation of electricity can not be exaggerated. The advantages of this universally accepted method are certainly so great that the probability of replacing the engine dynamos by batteries is, in my opinion, a remote one, the more so as the high-pressure steam engine and gas engine give promise of a considerably more economical thermodynamic conversion. Even if we had this day such an economical coal battery, its introduction in central stations would by no means be assured, as its use would entail many inconveniences and drawbacks. Very likely the carbon could not be burned in its natural form as in a boiler, but would have to be specially prepared to secure uniformity in the current generation. There would be a great many cells needed to make up the electro-motive force usually required. The process of cleaning and renewal, the handling of nasty fluids and gases and the great space necessary for so many batteries would make it difficult, if not commercially unprofitable, to operate such a plant in a city or densely populated district. Again, if the station be erected in the outskirts, the conversion by rotating transformers or otherwise would be a serious and unavoidable drawback. Furthermore, the regulating appliances and other accessories which would have to be provided would probably make the plant fully as much, if not more, complicated than the present. We might, of course, place the batteries at or near the coal mine, and from there transmit the energy to distant points in the form of high-tension alternating currents obtained from rotating transformers, but even in this most favorable case the process would be a barbarous one, certainly more so than the present, as it would still involve the consumption of material, while at the same time it would restrict the engineer and mechanic in the exercise of their beautiful art. As to the energy supply in small isolated places as dwellings, I have placed my confidence in the development of a light storage battery, involving the use of chemicals manufactured by cheap water power, such as some carbide or oxygen-hydrogen cell.

But we shall not satisfy ourselves simply with improving steam and explosive engines or inventing new batteries; we have something much better to work for, a greater task to fulfill. We have to evolve means for obtaining energy from stores which are forever inexhaustible, to perfect methods which do not imply consumption and waste of any material whatever. Upon this great possibility, which I have long ago recognized, upon this great problem, the practical solution of which means so much for humanity, I have myself concentrated my efforts since a number of years, and a few happy ideas which came to me have inspired me to attempt the most difficult, and given me strength and courage in adversity. Nearly six years ago my confidence had become strong enough to prompt me to an expression of hope in the ultimate solution of this all dominating problem. I have made progress since, and have passed the stage of mere conviction such as is derived from a deligent study of known facts, conclusions and calculations. I now feel sure that the realization of that idea is not far off. But precisely for this reason I feel impelled to point out here an important fact, which I hope will be remembered. Having examined for a long time the possibilities of the development I refer to, namely, that of the operation of engines on any point of the earth by the energy of the medium, I find that even under the

theoretically best conditions such a method of obtaining power can not equal in economy, simplicity and many other features the present method, involving a conversion of the mechanical energy of running water into electrical energy and the transmission of the latter in the form of currents of very high tension to great distances. Provided, therefore, that we can avail ourselves of currents of sufficiently high tension, a waterfall affords us the most advantageous means of getting power from the sun sufficient for all our wants, and this recognition has impressed me strongly with the future importance of the water power, not so much because of its commercial value, though it may be very great, but chiefly because of its bearing upon our safety and welfare. I am glad to say that also in this latter direction my efforts have not been unsuccessful, for I have devised means which will allow us the use in power transmission of electromotive forces much higher than those practicable with ordinary apparatus. In fact, progress in this field has given me fresh hope that I shall see the fulfillment of one of my fondest dreams; namely, the transmission of power from station to station without the employment of any connecting wire. Still, whatever method of transmission be ultimately adopted, nearness to the source of power will remain an important advantage.

Gentlemen, some of the ideas I have expressed may appear to many of you hardly realizable; nevertheless, they are the result of long-continued thought and work. You would judge them more justly if you would have devoted your life to them, as I have done. With ideas it is like with dizzy heights you climb: At first they cause you discomfort and you are anxious to get down, distrustful of your own powers; but soon the remoteness of the turmoil of life and the inspiring influence of the altitude calm your blood; your step gets firm and sure and you begin to look — for dizzier heights. I have attempted to speak to you on "Electricity," its development and influence, but I fear that I have done it much like a boy who tries to draw a likeness with a few straight lines. But I have endeavored to bring out one feature, to speak to you in one strain which I felt sure would find response in the hearts of all of you, the only one worthy of this occasion — the humanitarian. In the great enterprise at Niagara we see not only a bold engineering and commercial feat, but far more, a giant stride in the right direction as indicated both by exact science and philanthropy. Its success is a signal for the utilization of water powers all over the world, and its influence upon industrial development is incalculable. We must all rejoice in the great achievement and congratulate the intrepid pioneers who have joined their efforts and means to bring it about. It is a pleasure to learn of the friendly attitude of the citizens of Buffalo and of the encouragement given to the enterprise by the Canadian authorities. We shall hope that other cities, like Rochester on this side and Hamilton and Toronto in Canada, will soon follow Buffalo's lead. This fortunate city herself is to be congratulated. With resources now unequaled, with commercial facilities and advantages such as few cities in the world possess, and with the enthusiasm and progressive spirit of its citizens, it is sure to become one of the greatest industrial centers of the globe.

THE PROBLEM OF INCREASING HUMAN ENERGY*

THE ONWARD MOVEMENT OF MAN — THE ENERGY OF THE MOVEMENT — THE THREE WAYS OF INCREASING HUMAN ENERGY

Of all the endless variety of phenomena which nature presents to our senses, there is none that fills our minds with greater wonder than that inconceivably complex movement which, in its entirety, we designate as human life. Its mysterious origin is veiled in the forever impenetrable mist of the past, its character is rendered incomprehensible by its infinite intricacy, and its destination is hidden in the unfathomable depths of the future. Whence does it come? What is it? Whither does it tend? are the great questions which the sages of all times have endeavored to answer.

Modern science says: The sun is the past, the earth is the present, the moon is the future. From an incandescent mass we have originated, and into a frozen mass we shall turn. Merciless is the law of nature, and rapidly and irresistibly we are drawn to our doom. Lord Kelvin, in his profound meditations, allows us only a short span of life, something like six million years, after which time the sun's bright light will have ceased to shine, and its life-giving heat will have ebbed away, and our own earth will be a lump of ice, hurrying on through the eternal night. But do not let us despair. There will still be left on it a glimmering spark of life, and there will be a chance to kindle a new fire on some distant star. This wonderful possibility seems, indeed, to exist, judging from Professor Dewar's beautiful experiments with liquid air, which show that germs of organic life are not destroyed by cold, no matter how intense; consequently they may be transmitted through the interstellar space. Meanwhile the cheering lights of science and art, ever increasing in intensity, illuminate our path, and the marvels they disclose, and the enjoyments they offer, make us measurably forgetful of the gloomy future.

Though we may never be able to comprehend human life, we know certainly that it is a movement, of whatever nature it be. The existence of a movement unavoidably implies a body which is being moved and a force which is moving it. Hence, wherever there is life, there is a mass moved by a force. All mass possesses inertia, all force tends to persist. Owing to this universal property and condition, a body, be it at rest or in motion, tends to remain in the same state, and a force, manifesting itself anywhere and through whatever cause, produces an equivalent opposing force, and as an absolute necessity of this it follows that every movement in nature must be rhythmical. Long ago this simple truth was clearly pointed out by Herbert Spencer, who arrived at it through a somewhat different process of reasoning. It is borne out in everything we perceive — in the movement of a planet, in the surging and ebbing of the tide, in the reverberations of the air, the swinging of a pendulum, the oscillations of an electric current, and in the infinitely varied phenomena of organic life. Does not the

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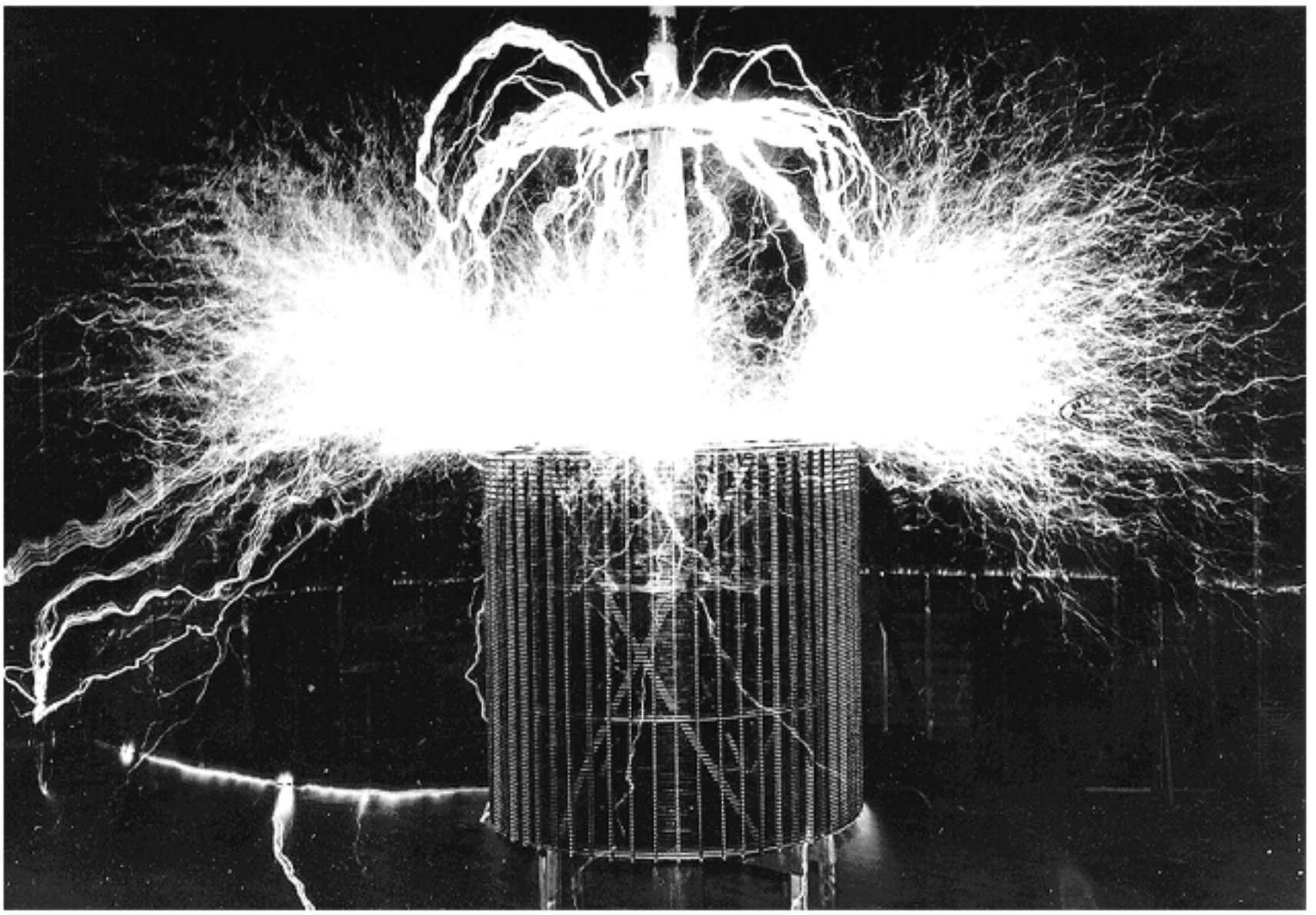
* The Century Illustrated Monthly Magazine, June 1900

whole of human life attest it? Birth, growth, old age, and death of an individual, family, race, or nation, what is it all but a rhythm? All life-manifestation, then, even in its most intricate form, as exemplified in man, however involved and inscrutable, is only a movement, to which the same general laws of movement which govern throughout the physical universe must be applicable.

When we speak of man, we have a conception of humanity as a whole, and before applying scientific methods to the investigation of his movement, we must accept this as a physical fact. But can any one doubt to-day that all the millions of individuals and all innumerable types and characters constitute an entirety, a unit? Though free to



Note to Fig. 1. — This result is produced by the discharge of an electrical oscillator giving twelve million volts. The electrical pressure, alternating one hundred thousand times per second, excites the normally inert nitrogen, causing it to combine with the oxygen. The flame-like discharge shown in the photograph measures sixty-five feet across.

think and act, we are held together, like the stars in the firmament, with ties inseparable. These ties we cannot see, but we can feel them. I cut myself in the finger, and it pains me: this finger is a part of me. I see a friend hurt, and it hurts me, too: my friend and I are one. And now I see stricken down an enemy, a lump of matter which, of all the lumps of matter in the universe, I care least for, and still it grieves me. Does this not prove that each of us is only a part of a whole?

For ages this idea has been proclaimed in the consummately wise teachings of religion, probably not alone as a means of insuring peace and harmony among men, but as a deeply founded truth. The Buddhist expresses it in one way, the Christian in another, but both say the same: We are all one. Metaphysical proofs are, however,

not the only ones which we are able to bring forth in support of this idea. Science, too, recognizes this connectedness of separate individuals, though not quite in the same sense as it admits that the suns, planets, and moons of a constellation are one body, and there can be no doubt that it will be experimentally confirmed in times to come, when our means and methods for investigating physical and other states and phenomena shall have been brought to great perfection. Still more: this one human being lives on and on. The individual is ephemeral, races and nations come and pass away, but man remains. Therein lies the profound difference between the individual and the whole. Therein, too, is to be found the partial explanation of many of those marvelous phenomena of heredity which are the result of countless centuries of feeble but persistent influence.

Conceive, then, man as a mass urged on by a force. Though this movement is not of a translatory character, implying change of place, yet the general laws of mechanical movement are applicable to it, and the energy associated with this mass can be measured, in accordance with well-known principles, by half the product of the mass with the square of a certain velocity. So, for instance, a cannon-ball which is at rest possesses a certain amount of energy in the form of heat, which we measure in a similar way. We imagine the ball to consist of innumerable minute particles, called atoms or molecules, which vibrate, or whirl around one another. We determine their masses and velocities, and from them the energy of each of these minute systems, and adding them all together, we get an idea of the total heat-energy contained in the ball, which is only seemingly at rest. In this purely theoretical estimate this energy may then be calculated by multiplying half of the total mass — that is, half of the sum of all the small masses — with the square of a velocity which is determined from the velocities of the separate particles. In like manner we may conceive of human energy being measured by half the human mass multiplied with the square of a velocity which we are not yet able to compute. But our deficiency in this knowledge will not vitiate the truth of the deductions I shall draw, which rest on the firm basis that the same laws of mass and force govern throughout nature.

Man, however, is not an ordinary mass, consisting of spinning atoms and molecules, and containing merely heat-energy. He is a mass possessed of certain higher qualities by reason of the creative principle of life with which he is endowed. His mass, as the water in an ocean wave, is being continuously exchanged, new taking the place of the old. Not only this, but he grows, propagates, and dies, thus altering his mass independently, both in bulk and density. What is most wonderful of all, he is capable of increasing or diminishing his velocity of movement by the mysterious power he possesses of appropriating more or less energy from other substance, and turning it into motive energy. But in any given moment we may ignore these slow changes and assume that human energy is measured by half the product of man's mass with the square of a certain hypothetical velocity. However we may compute this velocity, and whatever we may take as the standard of its measure, we must, in harmony with this conception, come to the conclusion that the great problem of science is, and always will be, to increase the energy thus defined. Many years ago, stimulated by the perusal of that deeply interesting work, Draper's "History of the Intellectual Development of Europe," depicting so vividly human movement, I recognized that to solve this eternal problem must ever be the chief task of the man of science. Some results of my own efforts to this end I shall endeavor briefly to describe here.

Let, then, in diagram *a, M* represent the mass of man. This mass is impelled in one direction by a force *f,* which is resisted by another partly frictional and partly negative force *R,* acting in a direction exactly opposite, and retarding the movement of the mass. Such an antagonistic force is present in every movement, and must be taken into consideration. The difference between these two forces is the effective

force which imparts a velocity V to the mass M in the direction of the arrow on the line representing the force f. In accordance with the preceding, the human energy will then be given by the product $\frac{1}{2}MV^2 = \frac{1}{2}MV \times V$, in which M is the total mass of man in the ordinary interpretation of the term "mass", and V is a certain hypothetical velocity, which, in the present state of science, we are unable exactly to define and determine. To increase the human energy is, therefore, equivalent to increasing this product, and there are, as will readily be seen, only three ways possible to attain this result, which are illustrated in the diagram below. The first way, shown in the top figure, is to increase the mass (as indicated by the dotted circle), leaving the two opposing forces the same. The second way is to reduce the retarding force R to a smaller value r, leaving the mass and the impelling force the same, as diagrammatically

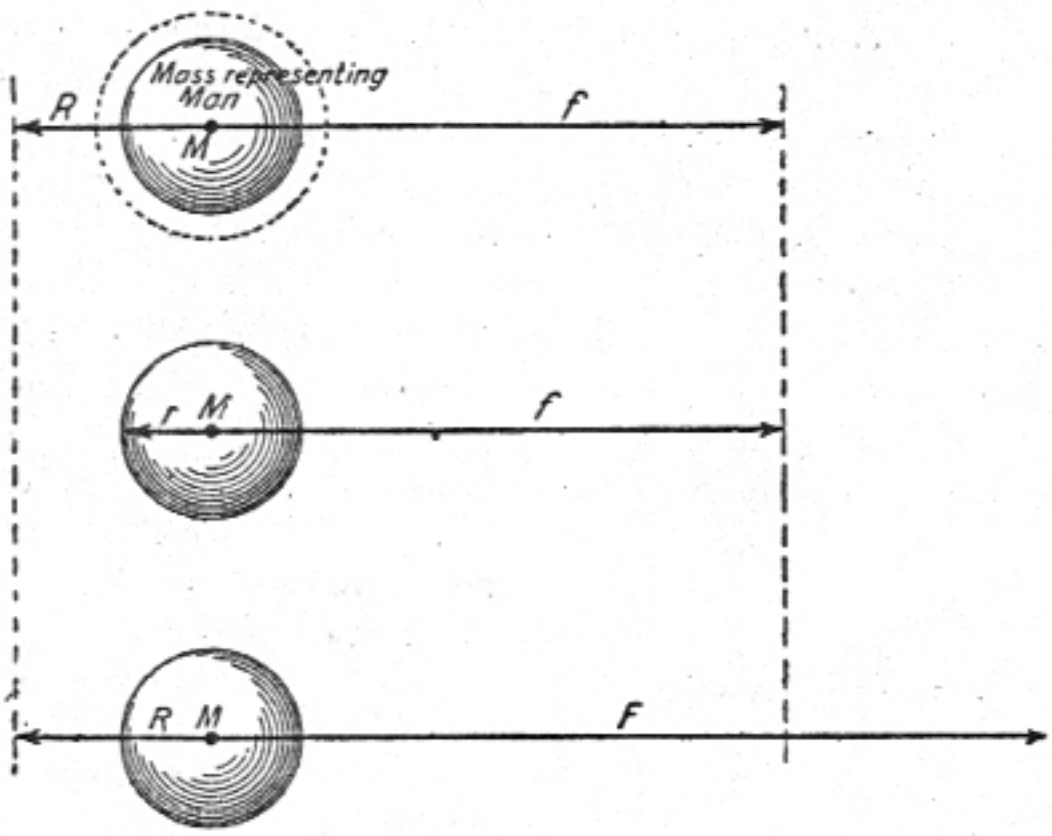


Diagram a. The three ways of increasing human energy.

shown in the middle figure. The third way, which is illustrated in the last figure, is to increase the impelling force f to a higher value F, while the mass and the retarding force R remain unaltered. Evidently fixed limits exist as regards increase of mass and reduction of retarding force, but the impelling force can be increased indefinitely. Each of these three possible solutions presents a different aspect of the main problem of increasing human energy, which is thus divided into three distinct problems, to be successively considered.

THE FIRST PROBLEM: HOW TO INCREASE THE HUMAN MASS — THE BURNING OF ATMOSPHERIC NITROGEN

Viewed generally, there are obviously two ways of increasing the mass of mankind: first, by aiding and maintaining those forces and conditions which tend to increase it; and, second, by opposing and reducing those which tend to diminish it. The mass will be increased by careful attention to health, by substantial food, by moderation, by regularity of habits, by the promotion of marriage, by conscientious attention to the children, and, generally stated, by the observance of all the many precepts and laws of religion and hygiene. But in adding new mass to the old, three cases again present themselves. Either the mass added is of the same velocity as the old, or it is of a smaller or of a higher velocity. To gain an idea of the relative importance of these cases, imagine a train composed of, say, one hundred locomotives running on a track, and

suppose that, to increase the energy of the moving mass, four more locomotives are added to the train. If these four move at the same velocity at-which the train is going, the total energy will be increased four per cent.; if they are moving at only one half of that velocity, the increase will amount to only one per cent.; if they are moving at twice that velocity, the increase of energy will be sixteen per cent. This simple illustration shows that it is of the greatest importance to add mass of a higher velocity. Stated more to the point, if, for example, the children be of the same degree of enlightenment as the parents, — that is, mass of the "same velocity," — the energy will simply increase proportionately to the number added. If they are less intelligent, or advanced, or mass of "smaller velocity," there will be a very slight gain in the energy; but if they are further advanced, or mass of "higher velocity," then the new generation will add very considerably to the sum total of human energy. Any addition of mass of "smaller velocity," beyond that indispensable amount required by the law expressed in the proverb, "Mens sana in corpore sano," should be strenuously opposed. For instance, the mere development of muscle, as aimed at in some of our colleges, I consider equivalent to adding mass of "smaller velocity," and I would not commend it, although my views were different when I was a student myself. Moderate exercise, insuring the right balance between mind and body, and the highest efficiency of performance, is, of course, a prime requirement. The above example shows that the most important result to be attained is the education, or the increase of the "velocity," of the mass newly added.

Conversely, it scarcely need be stated that everything that is against the teachings of religion and the laws of hygiene is tending to decrease the mass. Whisky, wine, tea, coffee, tobacco, and other such stimulants are responsible for the shortening of the lives of many, and ought to be used with moderation. But I do not think that rigorous measures of suppression of habits followed through many generations are commendable. It is wiser to preach moderation than abstinence. We have become accustomed to these stimulants, and if such reforms are to be effected, they must be slow and gradual. Those who are devoting their energies to such ends could make themselves far more useful by turning their efforts in other directions, as, for instance, toward providing pure water.

For every person who perishes from the effects of a stimulant, at least a thousand die from the consequences of drinking impure water. This precious fluid, which daily infuses new life into us, is likewise the chief vehicle through which disease and death enter our bodies. The germs of destruction it conveys are enemies all the more terrible as they perform their fatal work unperceived. They seal our doom while we live and enjoy. The majority of people are so ingnorant or careless in drinking water, and the consequences of this are so disastrous, that a philanthropist can scarcely use his efforts better than by endeavoring to enlighten those who are thus injuring themselves. By systematic purification and sterilization of the drinking-water the human mass would be very considerably increased. It should be made a rigid rule — which might be enforced by law — to boil or to sterilize otherwise the drinking-water in every household and public place. The mere filtering does not afford sufficient security against infection. All ice for internal uses should be artificially prepared from water thoroughly sterilized. The importance of eliminating germs of disease from the city water is generally recognized, but little is being done to improve the existing conditions, as no satisfactory method of sterilizing great quantities of water has as yet been brought forward. By improved electrical appliances we are now enabled to produce ozone cheaply and in large amounts, and this ideal disinfectant seems to offer a happy solution of the important question.

Gambling, business rush, and excitement, particularly on the exchanges, are causes of much mass-reduction, all the more so because the individuals concerned represent units

of higher value. Incapacity of observing the first symptoms of an illness, and careless neglect of the same, are important factors of mortality. In noting carefully every new sign of approaching danger, and making conscientiously every possible effort to avert it, we are not only following wise laws of hygiene in the interest of our well-being and the success of our labors, but we are also complying with a higher moral duty. Every one should consider his body as a priceless gift from one whom he loves above all, as a marvelous work of art, of undescribable beauty and mastery beyond human conception, and so delicate and frail that a word, a breath, a look, nay, a thought, may injure it. Uncleanliness, which breeds disease and death, is not only a self-destructive but a highly immoral habit. In keeping our bodies free from infection, healthful, and pure, we are expressing our reverence for the high principle with which they are endowed. He who follows the precepts of hygiene in this spirit is proving himself, so far, truly religious. Laxity of morals is a terrible evil, which poisons both mind and body, and which is responsible for a great reduction of the human mass in some countries. Many of the present customs and tendencies are productive of similar hurtful results. For example, the society life, modern education and pursuits of women, tending to draw them away from their household duties and make men out of them, must needs detract from the elevating ideal they represent, diminish the artistic creative power, and cause sterility and a general weakening of the race. A thousand other evils might be mentioned, but all put together, in their bearing upon the problem under discussion, they would not equal a single one, the want of food, brought on by poverty, destitution, and famine. Millions of individuals die yearly for want of food, thus keeping down the mass. Even in our enlightened communities, and notwithstanding the many charitable efforts, this is still, in all probability, the chief evil. I do not mean here absolute want of food, but want of healthful nutriment.

How to provide good and plentiful food is, therefore, a most important question of the day. On general principles the raising of cattle as a means of providing food is objectionable, because, in the sense interpreted above, it must undoubtedly tend to the addition of mass of a "smaller velocity." It is certainly preferable to raise vegetables, and I think, therefore, that vegetarianism is a commendable departure from the established barbarous habit. That we can subsist on plant food and perform our work even to advantage is not a theory, but a well-demonstrated fact. Many races living almost exclusively on vegetables are of superior physique and strength. There is no doubt that some plant food, such as oatmeal, is more economical than meat, and superior to it in regard to both mechanical and mental performance. Such food, moreover, taxes our digestive organs decidedly less, and, in making us more contented and sociable, produces an amount of good difficult to estimate. In view of these facts every effort should be made to stop the wanton and cruel slaughter of animals, which must be destructive to our morals. To free ourselves from animal instincts and appetites, which keep us down, we should begin at the very root from which they spring: we should effect a radical reform in the character of the food.

There seems to be no *philosophical* necessity for food. We can conceive of organized beings living without nourishment, and deriving all the energy they need for the performance of their life-functions from the ambient medium. In a crystal we have the clear evidence of the existence of a formative life-principle, and though we cannot understand the life of a crystal, it is none the less a living being. There may be, besides crystals, other such individualized, material systems of beings, perhaps of gaseous constitution, or composed of substance still more tenuous. In view of this possibility, — nay, probability, — we cannot apodictically deny the existence of organized beings on a planet merely because the conditions on the same are unsuitable for the existence of life as we conceive it. We cannot even, with positive assurance, assert that some of them might not be present here, in this our world, in the very midst of us, for their constitution and life-manifestation may be such that we are unable to perceive them.

The production of artificial food as a means for causing an increase of the human mass naturally suggests itself, but a direct attempt of this kind to provide nourishment does not appear to me rational, at least not for the present. Whether we could thrive on such food is very doubtful. We are the result of ages of continuous adaptation, and we cannot radically change without unforeseen and, in all probability, disastrous consequences. So uncertain an experiment should not be tried. By far the best way, it seems to me, to meet the ravages of the evil, would be to find ways of increasing the productivity of the soil. With this object the preservation of forests is of an importance which cannot be overestimated, and in this connection, also, the utilization of water-power for purposes of electrical transmission, dispensing in many ways with the necessity of burning wood, and tending thereby to forest preservation, is to be strongly advocated. But there are limits in the improvement to be effected in this and similar ways.

To increase materially the productivity of the soil, it must be more effectively fertilized by artificial means. The question of food-production resolves itself, then, into the question how best to fertilize the soil. What it is that made the soil is still a mystery. To explain its origin is probably equivalent to explaining the origin of life itself. The rocks, disintegrated by moisture and heat and wind and weather, were in themselves not capable of maintaining life. Some unexplained condition arose, and some new principle came into effect, and the first layer capable of sustaining low organisms, like mosses, was formed. These, by their life and death, added more of the life-sustaining quality to the soil, and higher organisms could then subsist, and so on and on, until at last highly developed plant and animal life could flourish. But though the theories are, even now, not in agreement as to how fertilization is effected, it is a fact, only too well ascertained, that the soil cannot indefinitely sustain life, and some way must be found to supply it with the substances which have been abstracted from it by the plants. The chief and most valuable among these substances are compounds of nitrogen, and the cheap production of these is, therefore, the key for the solution of the all-important food problem. Our atmosphere contains an inexhaustible amount of nitrogen, and could we but oxidize it and produce these compounds, an incalculable benefit for mankind would follow.

Long ago this idea took a powerful hold on the imagination of scientific men, but an efficient means for accomplishing this result could not be devised. The problem was rendered extremely difficult by the extraordinary inertness of the nitrogen, which refuses to combine even with oxygen. But here electricity comes to our aid: the dormant affinities of the element are awakened by an electric current of the proper quality. As a lump of coal which has been in contact with oxygen for centuries without burning will combine with it when once ignited, so nitrogen, excited by electricity, will burn. I did not succeed, however, in producing electrical discharges exciting very effectively the atmospheric nitrogen until a comparatively recent date, although I showed, in May, 1891, in a scientific lecture, a novel form of discharge or electrical flame named "St. Elmo's hotfire," .which, besides being capable of generating ozone in abundance, also possessed, as I pointed out on that occasion, distinctly the quality of exciting chemical affinities. This discharge or flame was then only three or four inches long, its chemical action was likewise very feeble, and consequently the process of oxidation of the nitrogen was wasteful. How to intensify this action was the question. Evidently electric currents of a peculiar kind had to be produced in order to render the process of nitrogen combustion more efficient.

The first advance was made in ascertaining that the chemical activity of the discharge was very considerably increased by using currents of extremely high frequency or rate of vibration. This was an important improvement, but practical considerations soon set a definite limit to the progress in this direction. Next, the effects of the

electrical pressure of the current impulses, of their wave-form and other characteristic features, were investigated. Then the influence of the atmospheric pressure and temperature and of the presence of water and other bodies was studied, and thus the best conditions for causing the most intense chemical action of the discharge and securing the highest efficiency of the process were gradually ascertained. Naturally, the improvements were not quick in coming; still, little by little, I advanced. The flame grew larger and larger, and its oxidizing action more and more intense. From an insignificant brush-discharge a few inches long it developed into a marvelous electrical phenomenon, a roaring blaze, devouring the nitrogen of the atmosphere and measuring sixty or seventy feet across. Thus slowly, almost imperceptibly, possibility became accomplishment. All is not yet done, by any means, but to what a degree my efforts have been rewarded an idea may be gained from an inspection of Fig. 1, which, with its title, is self-explanatory. The flame-like discharge visible is produced by the intense electrical oscillations which pass through the coil shown, and violently agitate the electrified molecules of the air. By this means a strong affinity is created between the two normally indifferent constituents of the atmosphere, and they combine readily, even if no further provision is made for intensifying the chemical action of the discharge. In the manufacture of nitrogen compounds by this method, of course, every possible means bearing upon the intensity of this action and the efficiency of the process will be taken advantage of, and, besides, special arrangements will be provided for the fixation of the compounds formed, as they are generally unstable, the nitrogen becoming again inert after a little lapse of time. Steam is a simple and effective means for fixing permanently the compounds. The result illustrated makes it practicable to oxidize the atmospheric nitrogen in unlimited quantities, merely by the use of cheap mechanical power and simple electrical apparatus. In this manner many compounds of nitrogen may be manufactured all over the world, at a small cost, and in any desired amount, and by means of these compounds the soil can be fertilized and its productiveness indefinitely increased. An abundance of cheap and healthful food, not artificial, but such as we are accustomed to, may thus be obtained. This new and inexhaustible source of food-supply will be of incalculable benefit to mankind, for it will enormously contribute to the increase of the human mass, and thus add immensely to human energy. Soon, I hope, the world will see the beginning of an industry which, in time to come, will, I believe, be in importance next to that of iron.

THE SECOND PROBLEM: HOW TO REDUCE THE FORCE RETARDING THE HUMAN MASS — THE ART OF TELAUTOMATICS

As before stated, the force which retards the onward movement of man is partly frictional and partly negative. To illustrate this distinction I may name, for example, ignorance, stupidity, and imbecility as some of the purely frictional forces, or resistances devoid of any directive tendency. On the other hand, visionariness, insanity, self-destructive tendency, religious fanaticism, and the like, are all forces of a negative character, acting in definite directions. To reduce or entirely to overcome these dissimilar retarding forces, radically different methods must be employed. One knows, for instance, what a fanatic may do, and one can take preventive measures, can enlighten, convince, and possibly direct him, turn his vice into virtue; but one does not know, and never can know, what a brute or an imbecile may do, and one must deal with him as with a mass, inert, without mind, let loose by the mad elements. A negative force always implies some quality, not infrequently a high one, though badly directed, which it is possible to turn to good advantage; but a directionless, frictional force involves

unavoidable loss. Evidently, then, the first and general answer to the above question is: turn all negative force in the right direction and reduce all frictional force.

There can be no doubt that, of all the frictional resistances, the one that most retards human movement is ignorance. Not without reason said that man of wisdom, Buddha: "Ignorance is the greatest evil in the world." The friction which results from ignorance, and which is greatly increased owing to the numerous languages and nationalities, can be reduced only by the spread of knowledge and the unification of the heterogeneous elements of humanity. No effort could be better spent. But however ignorance may have retarded the onward movement of man in times past, it is certain that, nowadays, negative forces have become of greater importance. Among these there is one of far greater moment than any other. It is called organized warfare. When we consider the millions of individuals, often the ablest in mind and body, the flower of humanity, who are compelled to a life of inactivity and unproductiveness, the immense sums of money daily required for the maintenance of armies and war apparatus, representing ever so much of human energy, all the effort uselessly spent in the production of arms and implements of destruction, the loss of life and the fostering of a barbarous spirit, we are appalled at the inestimable loss to mankind which the existence of these deplorable conditions must involve. What can we do to combat best this great evil?

Law and order absolutely require the maintenance of organized force. No community can exist and prosper without rigid discipline. Every country must be able to defend itself, should the necessity arise. The conditions of to-day are not the result of yesterday, and a radical change cannot be effected to-morrow. If the nations would at once disarm, it is more than likely that a state of things worse than war itself would follow. Universal peace is a beautiful dream, but not at once realizable. We have seen recently that even the noble effort of the man invested with the greatest worldly power has been virtually without effect. And no wonder, for the establishment of universal peace is, for the time being, a physical impossibility. War is a negative force, and cannot be turned in a positive direction without passing through the intermediate phases. It is the problem of making a wheel, rotating one way, turn in the opposite direction without slowing it down, stopping it, and speeding it up again the other way.

It has been argued that the perfection of guns of great destructive power will stop warfare. So I myself thought for a long time, but now I believe this to be a profound mistake. Such developments will greatly modify, but not arrest it. On the contrary, I think that every new arm that is invented, every new departure that is made in this direction, merely invites new talent and skill, engages new effort, offers a new incentive, and so only gives a fresh impetus to further development. Think of the discovery of gunpowder. Can we conceive of any more radical departure than was effected by this innovation? Let us imagine ourselves living in that period: would we not have thought then that warfare was at an end, when the armor of the knight became an object of ridicule, when bodily stength and skill, meaning so much before, became of comparatively little value? Yet gunpowder did not stop warfare; quite the opposite — it acted as a most powerful incentive. Nor do I believe that warfare can ever be arrested by any scientific or ideal development, so long as similar conditions to those now prevailing exist, because war has itself become a science, and because war involves some of the most sacred sentiments of which man is capable. In fact, it is doubtful whether men who would not be ready to fight for a high principle would be good for anything at all. It is not the mind which makes man, nor is it the body; it is mind and body. Our virtues and our failings are inseparable, like force and matter. When they separate, man is no more.

Another argument, which carries considerable force, is frequently made, namely, that war must soon become impossible because the means of defense are outstripping the means of attack. This is only in accordance with a fundamental law which may

be expressed by the statement that it is easier to destroy than to build. This law defines human capacities and human conditions. Were these such that it would be easier to build than to destroy, man would go on unresisted, creating and accumulating without limit. Such conditions are not of this earth. A being which could do this would not be a man; it might be a god. Defense will always have the advantage over attack, but this alone, it seems to me, can never stop war. By the use of new principles of defense we can render harbors impregnable against attack, but we cannot by such means prevent two war-ships meeting in battle on the high sea. And then, if we follow this idea to its ultimate development, we are led to the conclusion that it would be better for mankind if attack and defense were just oppositely related: for if every country, even the smallest, could surround itself with a wall absolutely impenetrable, and could defy the rest of the world, a state of things would surely be brought on which would be extremely unfavorable to human progress. It is by abolishing all the barriers which separate nations and countries that civilization is best furthered.

Again, it is contended by some that the advent of the flying-machine must bring on universal peace. This, too, I believe to be an entirely erroneous view. The flying-machine is certainly coming, and very soon, but the conditions will remain the same as before. In fact, I see no reason why a ruling power, like Great Britain, might not govern the air as well as the sea. Without wishing to put myself on record as a prophet, I do not hesitate to say that the next years will see the establishment of an "air-power," and its center may not be far from New York. But, for all that, men will fight on merrily.

The ideal development of the war principle would ultimately lead to the transformation of the whole energy of war into purely potential, explosive energy, like that of an electrical condenser. In this form the war-energy could be maintained without effort; it would need to be much smaller in amount, while incomparably more effective.

As regards the security of a country against foreign invasion, it is interesting to note that it depends only on the relative, and not on the absolute, number of the individuals or magnitude of the forces, and that, if every country should reduce the war-force in the same ratio, the security would remain unaltered. An international agreement with the object of reducing to a minimum the war-force which, in view of the present still imperfect education of the masses, is absolutely indispensable, would, therefore, seem to be the first rational step to take toward diminishing the force retarding human movement.

Fortunately, the existing conditions cannot continue indefinitely, for a new element is beginning to assert itself. A change for the better is imminent, and I shall now endeavor to show what, according to my ideas, will be the first advance toward the establishment of peaceful relations between nations, and by what means it will eventually be accomplished.

Let us go back to the early beginning, when the law of the stronger was the only law. The light of reason was not yet kindled, and the weak was entirely at the mercy of the strong. The weak individual then began to learn how to defend himself. He made use of a club, stone, spear. sling, or bow and arrow, and in the course of time, instead of physical strength, intelligence became the chief deciding factor in the battle. The wild character was gradually softened by the awakening of noble sentiments, and so, imperceptibly, after ages of continued progress, we have come from the brutal fight of the unreasoning animal to what we call the "civilized warfare" of to-day, in which the combatants shake hands, talk in a friendly way, and smoke cigars in the entr-actes, ready to engage again in deadly conflict at a signal. Let pessimists say what they like, here is an absolute evidence of great and gratifying advance.

But now, what is the next phase in this evolution? Not peace as yet, by any means. The next change which should naturally follow from modern developments

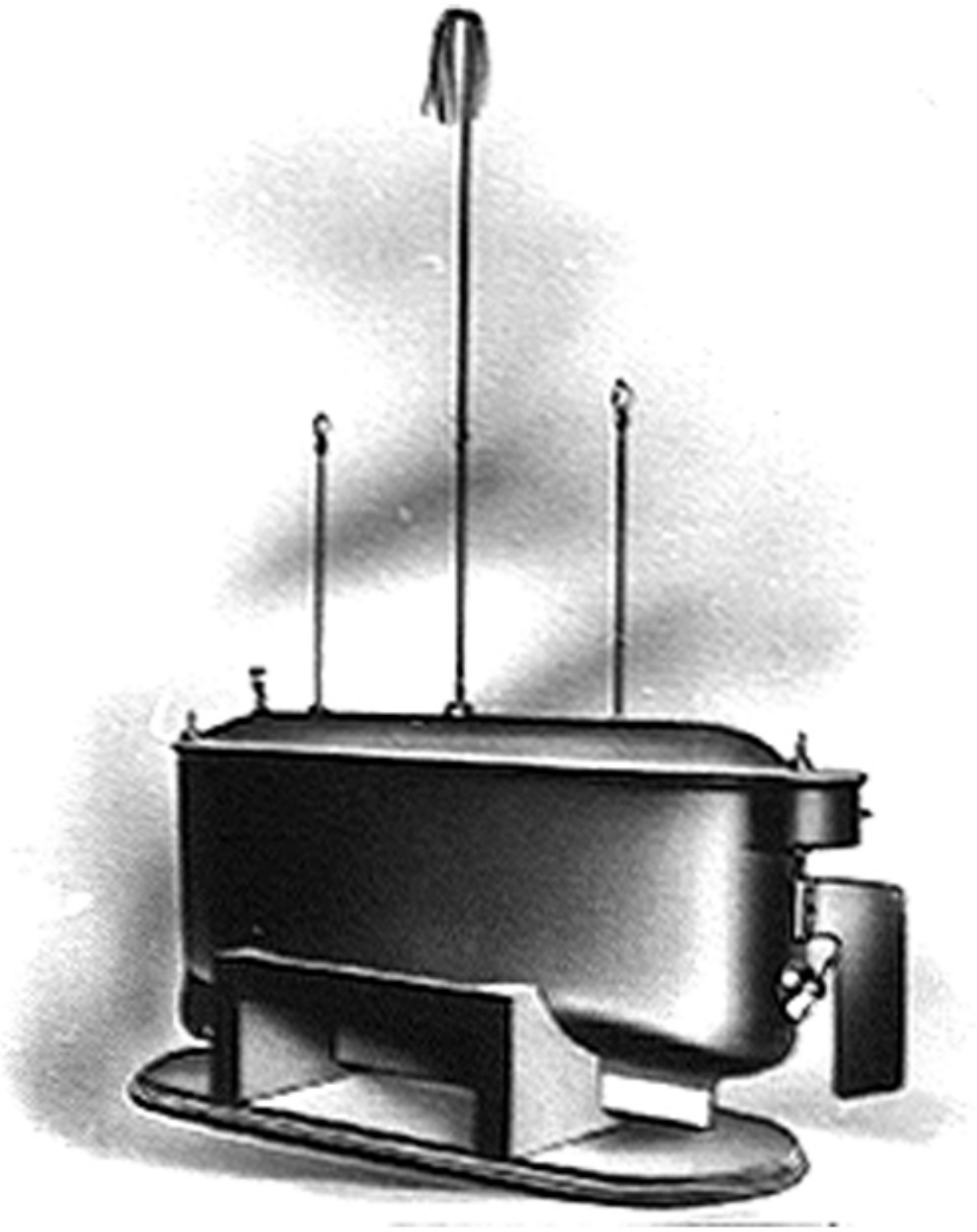


Fig. 2. THE FIRST PRACTICAL TELAUTOMATON.

A machine having all its bodily or translatory movements and the operations of the interior mechanism controlled from a distance without wires. The crewless boat shown in the photograph contains its own motive power, propelling- and steering-machinery, and numerous other accessories, all of which are controlled by transmitting from a distance, without wires, electrical oscillations to a circuit carried by the boat and adjusted to respond only to these oscillations.

should be the continuous diminution of the number of individuals engaged in battle. The apparatus will be one of specifically great power, but only a few individuals will be required to operate it. This evolution will bring more and more into prominence a machine or mechanism with the fewest individuals as an element of warfare, and the absolutely unavoidable consequence of this will be the abandonment of large, clumsy, slowly moving, and unmanageable units. Greatest possible speed and maximum rate of energy-delivery by the war apparatus will be the main object. The loss of life will become smaller and smaller, and finally, the number of the individuals continuously diminishing, merely machines will meet in a contest without bloodshed, the nations being simply interested, ambitious spectators. When this happy condition is realized, peace will be assured. But, no matter to what degree of perfection rapid-fire guns, high-power cannon, explosive projectiles, torpedo-boats, or other implements of war may be brought, no matter how destructive they may be made, that condition can never be reached through any such development. All such implements require men for their operation; men are indispensable parts of the machinery. Their object is to kill and to destroy. Their power resides in their capacity for doing evil. So long as men meet in battle, there will be bloodshed. Bloodshed will ever keep up barbarous passion. To break this fierce spirit, a radical departure must be made, an entirely new principle must be introduced, something that never existed before in warfare — a principle which will forcibly, unavoidably, turn the battle into a mere spectacle, a play, a contest without loss of blood. To bring on this result men must be dispensed with: machine must fight machine. But how accomplish that which seems impossible? The answer is simple enough: produce a machine capable of acting as though it were part of a human being — no mere mechanical contrivance, comprising levers, screws, wheels, clutches, and nothing more, but a machine embodying a higher principle, which will enable it to perform its duties as though it had intelligence, experience, reason, judgment, a mind! This conclusion is the result of my thoughts and observations which have extended through virtually my whole life, and I shall now briefly describe how I came to accomplish that which at first seemed an unrealizable dream.

A long time ago, when I was a boy, I was afflicted with a singular trouble, which seems to have been due to an extraordinary excitability of the retina. It was the appearance of images which, by their persistence, marred the vision of real objects and interfered with thought. When a word was said to me, the image of the object which it designated would appear vividly before my eyes, and many times it was impossible for me to tell whether the object I saw was real or not. This caused me great discomfort and anxiety, and I tried hard to free myself of the spell. But for a long time I tried in vain, and it was not, as I still clearly recollect, until I was about twelve years old that I succeeded for the first time, by an effort of the will, in banishing an image which presented itself. My happiness will never be as complete as it was then, but, unfortunately (as I thought at that time), the old trouble returned, and with it my anxiety. Here it was that the observations to which I refer began. I noted, namely, that whenever the image of an object appeared before my eyes I had seen something which reminded me of it. In the first instances I thought this to be purely accidental, but soon I convinced myself that it was not so. A visual impression, consciously or unconsciously received, invariably preceded the appearance of the image. Gradually the desire arose in me to find out, every time, what caused the images to appear, and the satisfaction of this desire soon became a necessity. The next observation I made was that, just as these images followed as a result of something I had seen, so also the thoughts which I conceived were suggested in like manner. Again, I experienced the same desire to locate the image which caused the thought, and this search for the original visual impression soon grew to be a second nature. My mind became automatic, as it were, and

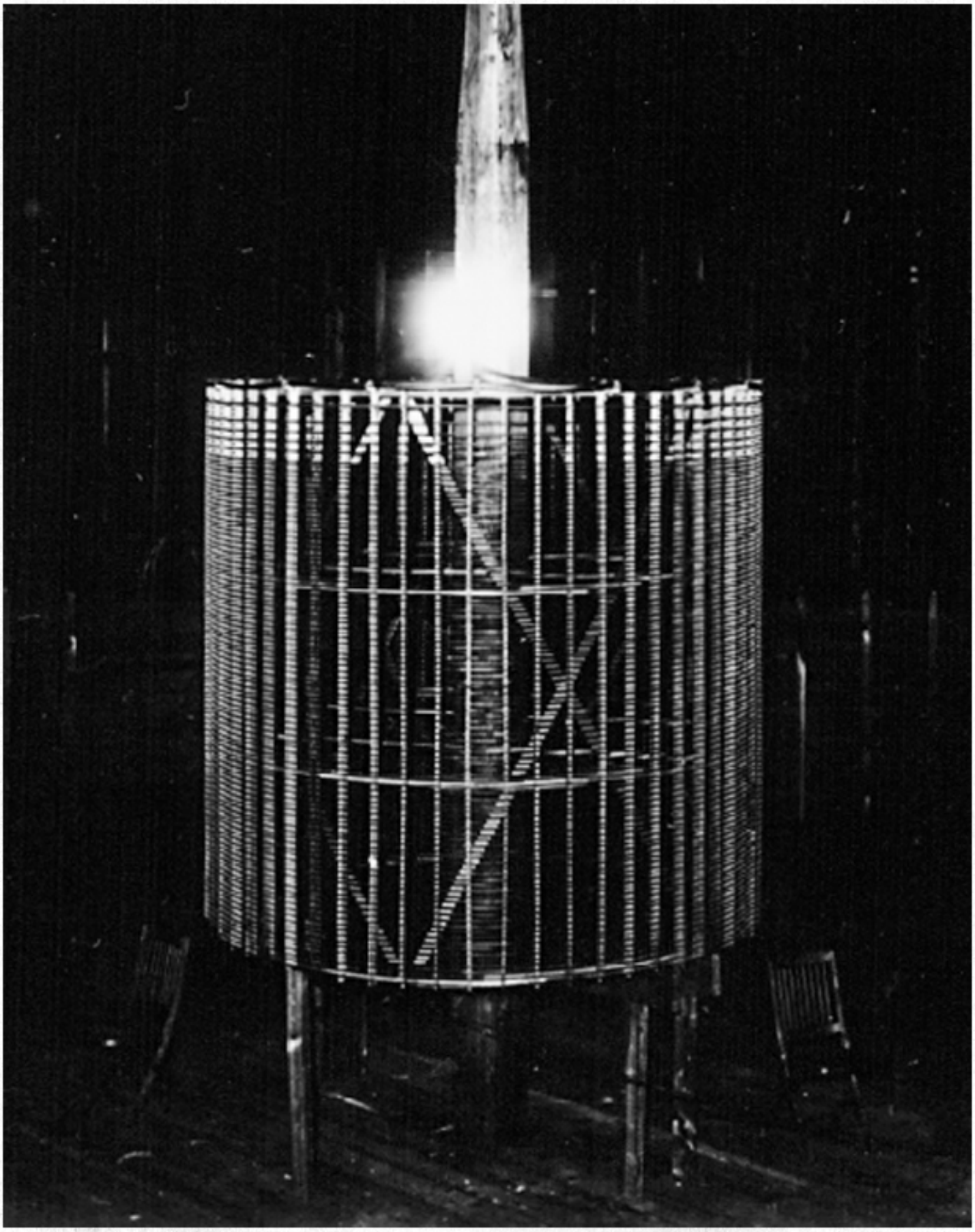


Fig. 3. EXPERIMENT TO ILLUSTRATE THE SUPPLYING OF ELECTRICAL ENERGY THROUGH A SINGLE WIRE WITHOUT RETURN.

An ordinary incandescent lamp connected with one or both of its terminals to the wire forming the upper free end of the coil shown in the photograph, is lighted by electrical vibrations conveyed to it through the coil from an electrical oscillator, which is worked only to one fifth of one per cent of its full capacity.

in the course of years of continued, almost unconscious performance, I acquired the ability of locating every time and, as a rule, instantly the visual impression which started the thought. Nor is this all. It was not long before I was aware that also all my movements were prompted in the same way, and so, searching, observing, and verifying continuously, year after year, I have, by every thought and every act of mine, demonstrated, and do so daily, to my absolute satisfaction, that I am an automaton endowed with power of movement, which merely responds to external stimuli beating upon my sense organs, and thinks and acts and moves accordingly. I remember only one or two cases in all my life in which I was unable to locate the first impression which prompted a movement or a thought, or even a dream.

With these experiences it was only natural that, long ago, I conceived the idea of constructing an automaton which would mechanically represent me, and which would respond, as I do myself, but, of course, in a much more primitive manner, to external influences. Such an automaton evidently had to have motive power, organs for locomotion, directive organs, and one or more sensitive organs so adapted as to be excited by external stimuli. This machine would, I reasoned, perform its movements in the manner of a living being, for it would have all the chief mechanical characteristics or elements of the same. There was still the capacity for growth, propagation, and, above all, the mind which would be wanting to make the model complete. But growth was not necessary in this case, since a machine could be manufactured full-grown, so to speak. As to the capacity for propagation, it could likewise be left out of consideration, for in the mechanical model it merely signified a process of manufacture. Whether the automaton be of flesh and bone, or of wood and steel, it mattered little, provided it could perform all the duties required of it like an intelligent being. To do so, it had to have an element corresponding to the mind, which would effect the control of all its movements and operations, and cause it to act, in any unforeseen case that might present itself, with knowledge, reason, judgment, and experience. But this element I could easily embody in it by conveying to it my own intelligence, my own understanding. So this invention was evolved, and so a new art came into existence, for which the name "telautomatics" has been suggested, which means the art of controlling the movements and operations of distant automatons.

This principle evidently was applicable to any kind of machine that moves on land or in the water or in the air. In applying it practically for the first time, I selected a boat (see Fig. 2). A storage battery placed within it furnished the motive power. The propeller, driven by a motor, represented the locomotive organs. The rudder, controlled by another motor likewise driven by the battery, took the place of the directive organs. As to the sensitive organ, obviously the first thought was to utilize a device responsive to rays of light, like a selenium cell, to represent the human eye. But upon closer inquiry I found that, owing to experimental and other difficulties, no thoroughly satisfactory control of the automaton could be effected by light, radiant heat, Hertzian radiations, or by rays in general, that is, disturbances which pass in straight lines through space. One of the reasons was that any obstacle coming between the operator and the distant automaton would place it beyond his control. Another reason was that the sensitive device representing the eye would have to be in a definite position with respect to the distant controlling apparatus, and this necessity would impose great limitations in the control. Still another and very important reason was that, in using rays, it would be difficult, if not impossible, to give to the automaton individual features or characteristics distinguishing it from other machines of this kind. Evidently the automaton should respond only to an individual call, as a person responds to a name. Such considerations led me to conclude that the sensitive device of the machine should correspond to the ear rather than to the eye of a human being, for in this case its actions could be controlled

irrespective of intervening obstacles, regardless of its position relative to the distant controlling apparatus, and, last, but not least, it would remain deaf and unresponsive, like a faithful servant, to all calls but that of its master. These requirements made it imperative to use, in the control of the automaton, instead of light — or other rays, waves or disturbances which propagate in all directions through space, like sound, or which follow a path of least resistance, however curved. I attained the result aimed at by means of an electric circuit placed within the boat, and adjusted, or "tuned", exactly to electrical vibrations of the proper kind transmitted to it from a distant "electrical oscillator." This circuit, in responding, however feebly, to the transmitted vibrations, affected magnets and other contrivances, through the medium of which were controlled the movements of the propeller and rudder, and also the operations of numerous other appliances.

By the simple means described the knowledge, experience, judgment — the mind, so to speak — of the distant operator were embodied in that machine, which was thus enabled to move and to perform all its operations with reason and intelligence. It behaved just like a blindfolded person obeying directions received through the ear.

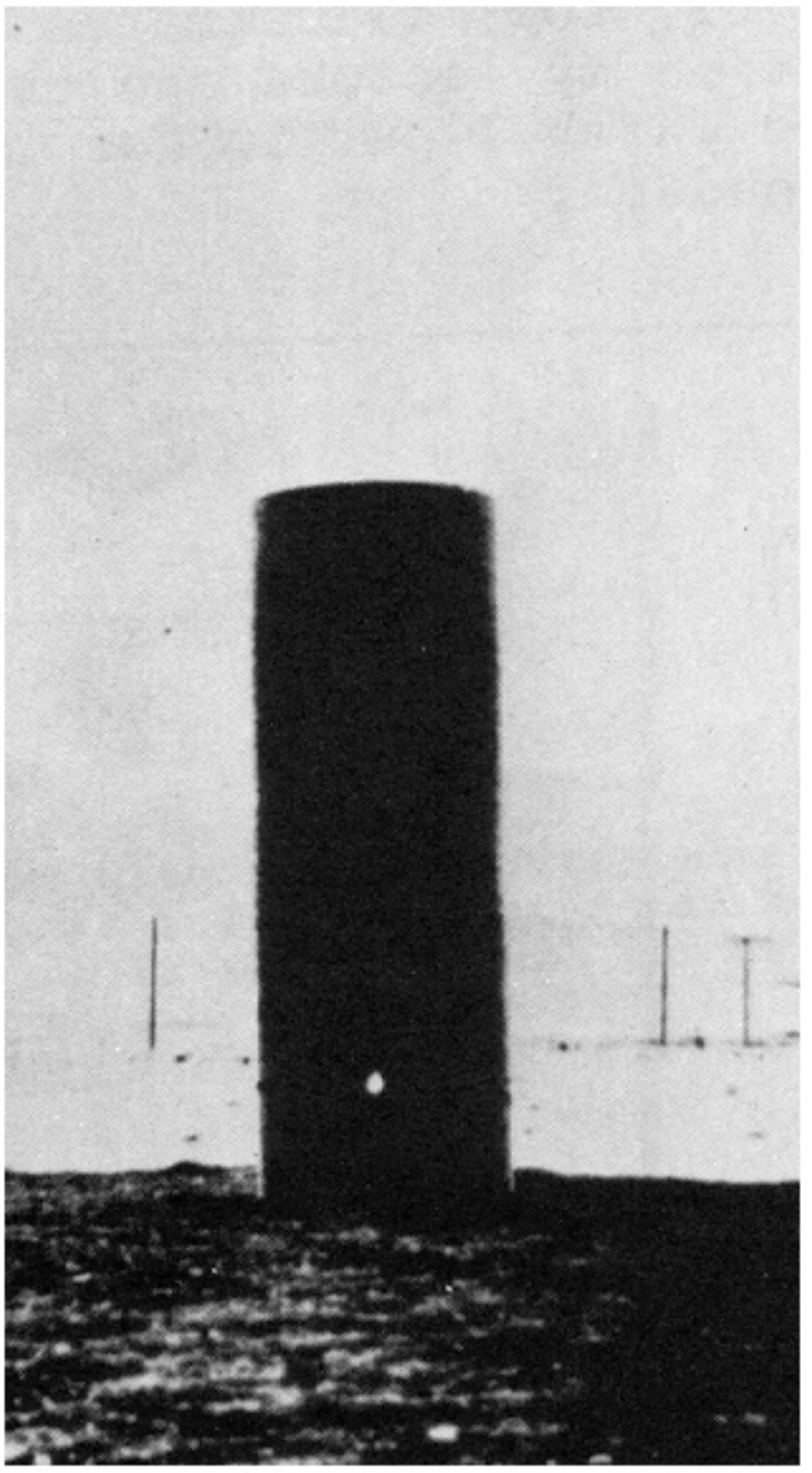


Fig. 4. EXPERIMENT TO ILLUSTRATE THE TRANSMISSION OF ELECTRICAL ENERGY THROUGH THE EARTH WITHOUT WIRE. The coil shown in the photograph has its lower end or terminal connected to the ground, and is exactly attuned to the vibrations of a distant electrical oscillator. The lamp lighted is in an independent wire loop, energized by induction from the coil excited by the electrical vibrations transmitted to it through the ground from the oscillator, which is worked only to five per cent. of its full capacity.

The automatons so far constructed had "borrowed minds," so to speak, as each merely formed part of the distant operator who conveyed to it his intelligent orders; but this art is only in the beginning. I purpose to show that, however impossible it may now seem, an automaton may be contrived which will have its "own mind," and by this I mean that it will be able, independent of any operator, left entirely to itself, to perform, in response to external influences affecting its sensitive organs, a great variety of acts and operations as if it had intelligence. It will be able to follow a course laid out or to obey orders given far in advance; it will be capable of distinguishing between what it ought and what it ought not to do, and of making experiences or, otherwise stated, of recording impressions which will definitely affect its subsequent actions. In fact, I have already conceived such a plan.

Although I evolved this invention many years ago and explained it to my visitors very frequently in my laboratory demonstrations, it was not until much later, long

after I had perfected it, that it became known, when, naturally enough, it gave rise to much discussion and to sensational reports. But the true significance of this new art was not grasped by the majority, nor was the great force of the underlying principle recognized. As nearly as I could judge from the numerous comments which then

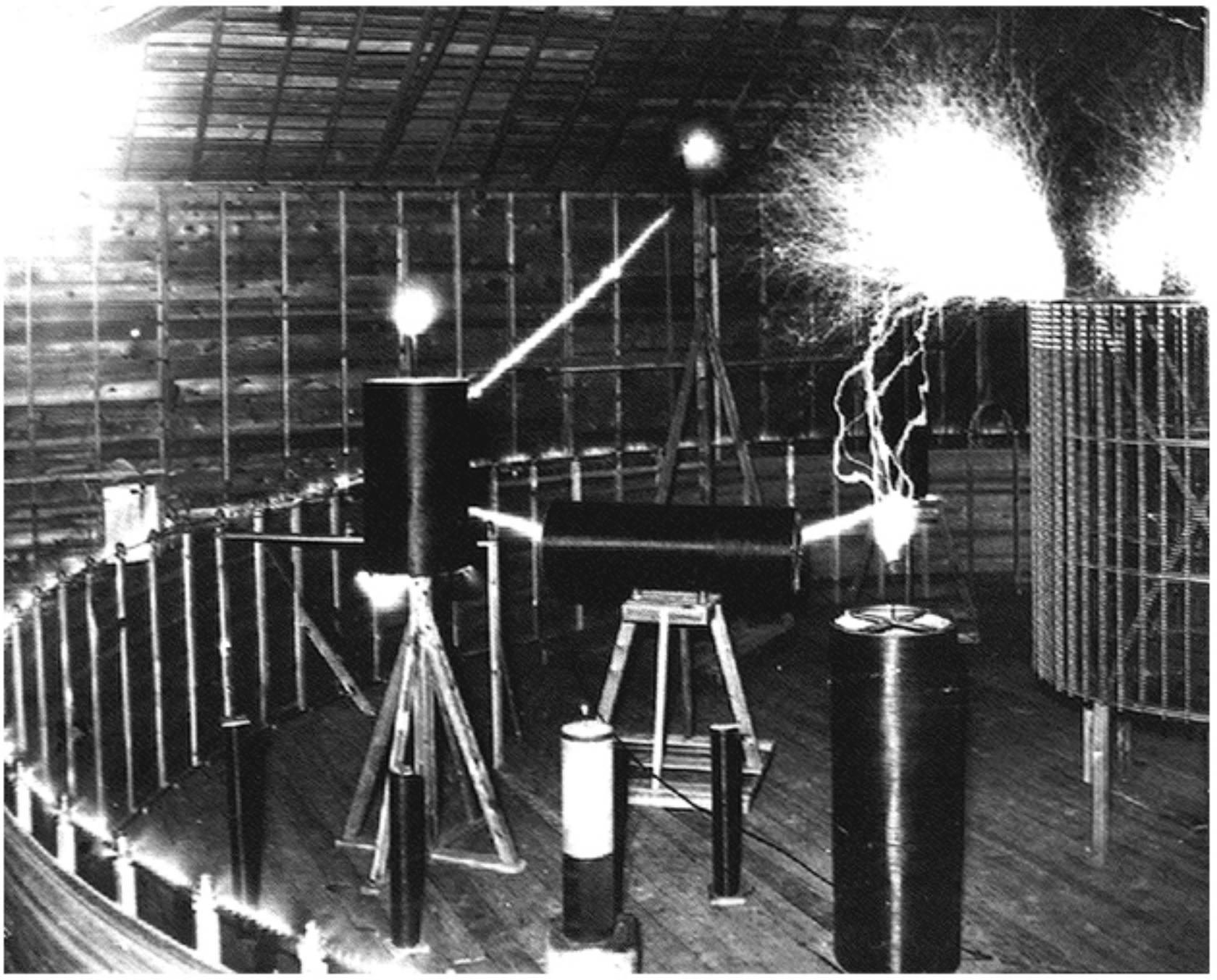


Fig. 5. PHOTOGRAPHIC VIEW OF COILS RESPONDING TO ELECTRICAL OSCILLATIONS.
The picture shows a number of coils, differently attuned and responding to the vibrations transmitted to them through the earth from an electrical oscillator. The large coil on the right, discharging strongly, is tuned to the fundamental vibration, which is fifty thousand per second; the two larger vertical coils to twice that number; the smaller white wire coil to four times that number, and the remaining small coils to higher tones. The vibrations produced by the oscillator were so intense that they affected perceptibly a small coil tuned to the twenty-sixth higher tone.

appeared, the results I had obtained were considered as entirely impossible. Even the few who were disposed to admit the practicability of the invention saw in it merely an automobile torpedo, which was to be used for the purpose of blowing up battleships, with doubtful success. The general impression was that I contemplated simply the steering of such a vessel by means of Hertzian or other rays. There are torpedoes steered electrically by wires, and there are means of communicating without wires, and the above was, of course, an obvious inference. Had I accomplished nothing more than this, I should have made a small advance indeed. But the art I have evolved does not contemplate merely the change of direction of a moving vessel; it affords a means of absolutely controlling, in every respect, all the innumerable translatory movements, as well as the operations of all the internal organs, no matter how many, of an individualized automaton. Criticisms to the effect that the control of the automaton

could be interfered with were made by people who do not even dream of the wonderful results which can be accomplished by the use of electrical vibrations. The world moves slowly, and new truths are difficult to see. Certainly, by the use of this principle, an arm for attack as well as defense may be provided, of a destructiveness all the greater as the principle is applicable to submarine and aerial vessels. There is virtually no

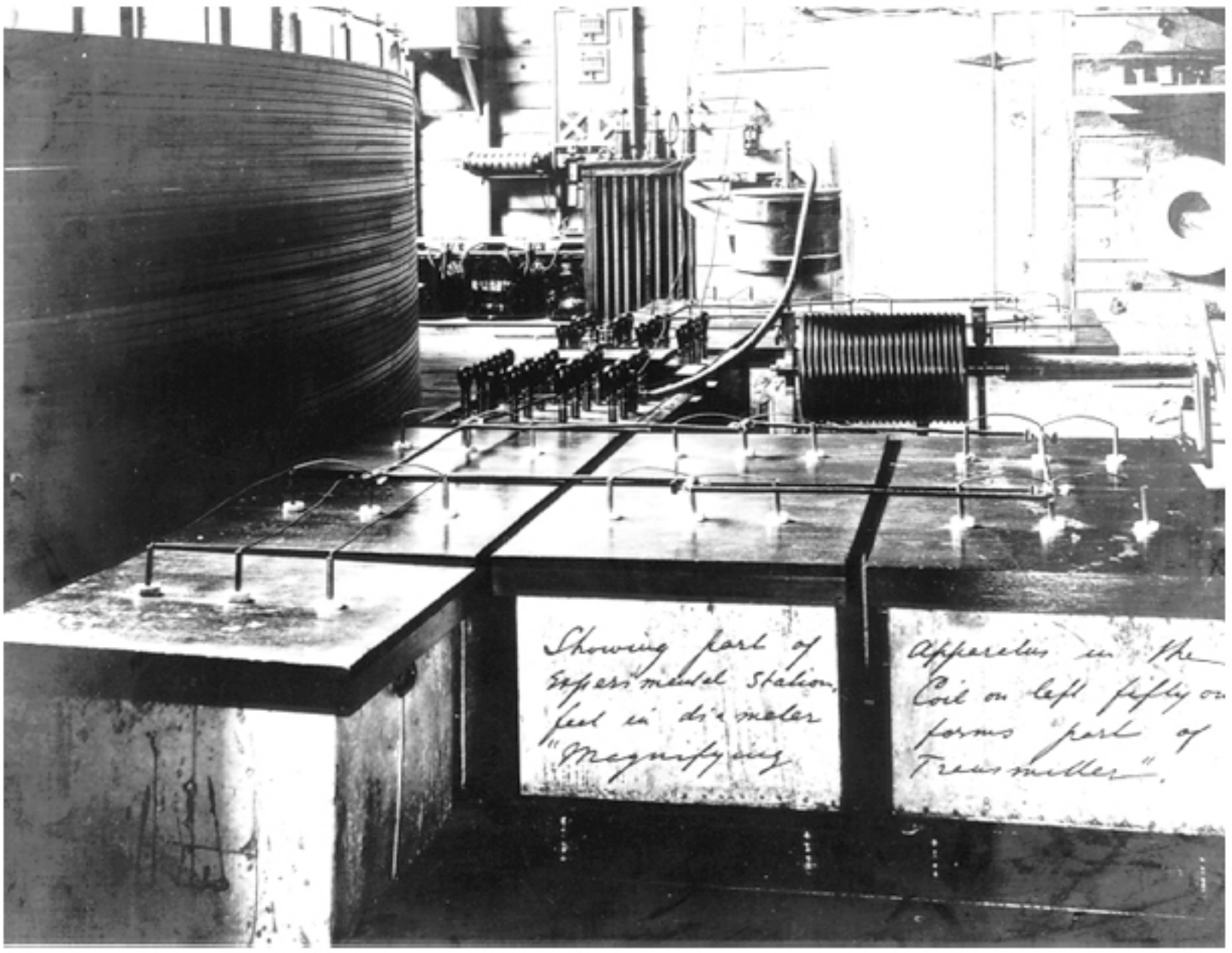


Fig. 6. PHOTOGRAPHIC VIEW OF THE ESSENTIAL PARTS OF THE ELECTRICAL OSCILLATOR USED IN THE EXPERIMENTS DESCRIBED.

restriction as to the amount of explosive it can carry, or as to the distance at which it can strike, and failure is almost impossible. But the force of this new principle does not wholly reside in its destructiveness. Its advent introduces into warfare an element which never existed before — a fighting-machine without men as a means of attack and defense. The continuous development in this direction must ultimately make war a mere contest of machines without men and without loss of life — a condition which would have been impossible without this new departure, and which, in my opinion, must be reached as preliminary to permanent peace. The future will either bear out or disprove these views. My ideas on this subject have been put forth with deep conviction, but in a humble spirit.

The establishment of permanent peaceful relations between nations would most effectively reduce the force retarding the human mass, and would be the best solution of this great human problem. But will the dream of universal peace ever be realized? Let us hope that it will. When all darkness shall be dissipated by the light of science,

when all nations shall be merged into one, and patriotism shall be identical with religion, when there shall be one language, one country, one end, then the dream will have become reality.

THE THIRD PROBLEM: HOW TO INCREASE THE FORCE ACCELERATING THE HUMAN MASS — THE HARNESSING OF THE SUN'S ENERGY

Of the three possible solutions of the main problem of increasing human energy, this is by far the most important to consider, not only because of its intrinsic significance, but also because of its intimate bearing on all the many elements and conditions which determine the movement of humanity. In order to proceed systematically, it would be necessary for me to dwell on all those considerations which have guided me from the outset in my efforts to arrive at a solution, and which have led me, step by step, to the results I shall now describe. As a preliminary study of the problem an analytical

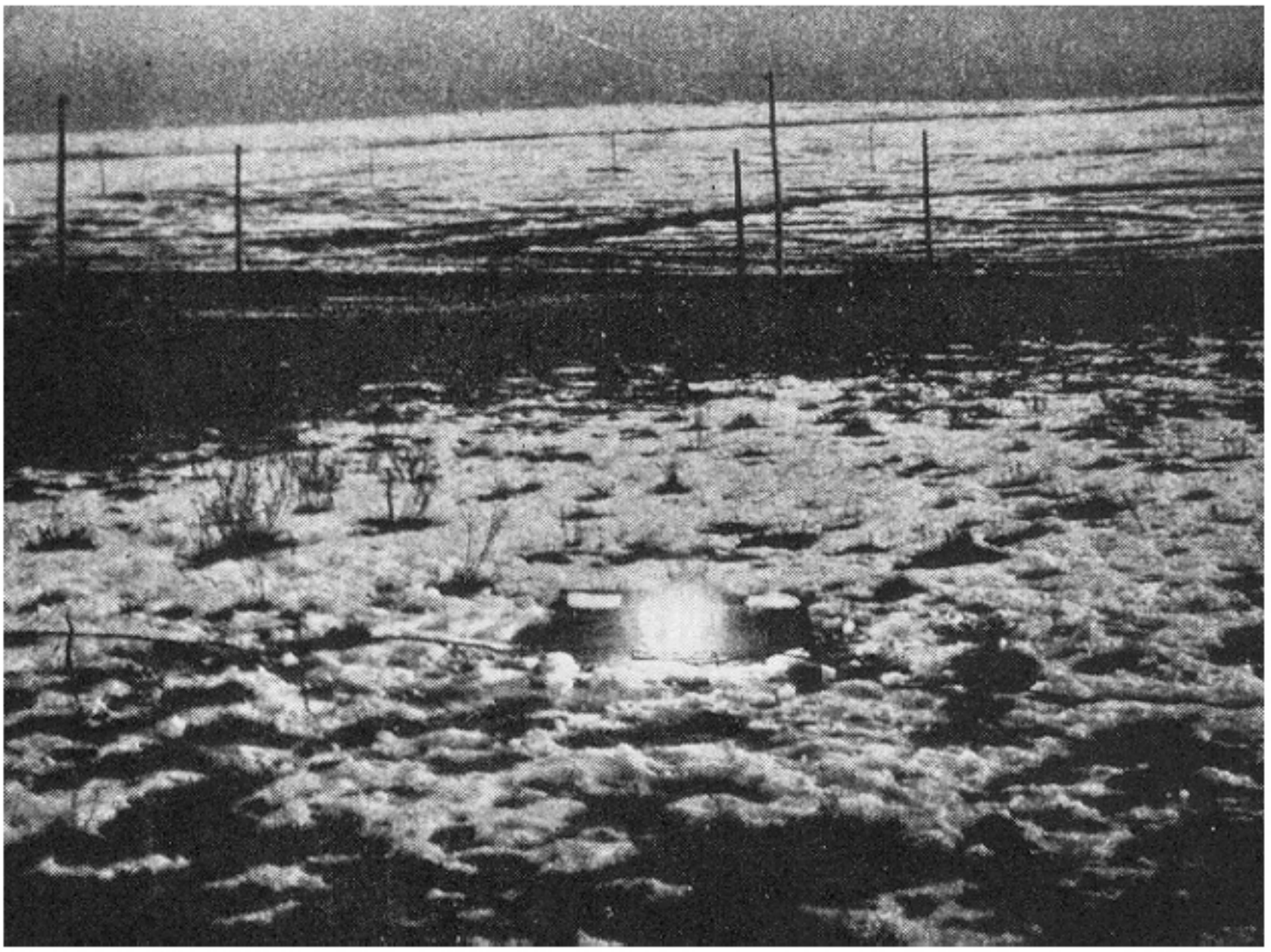
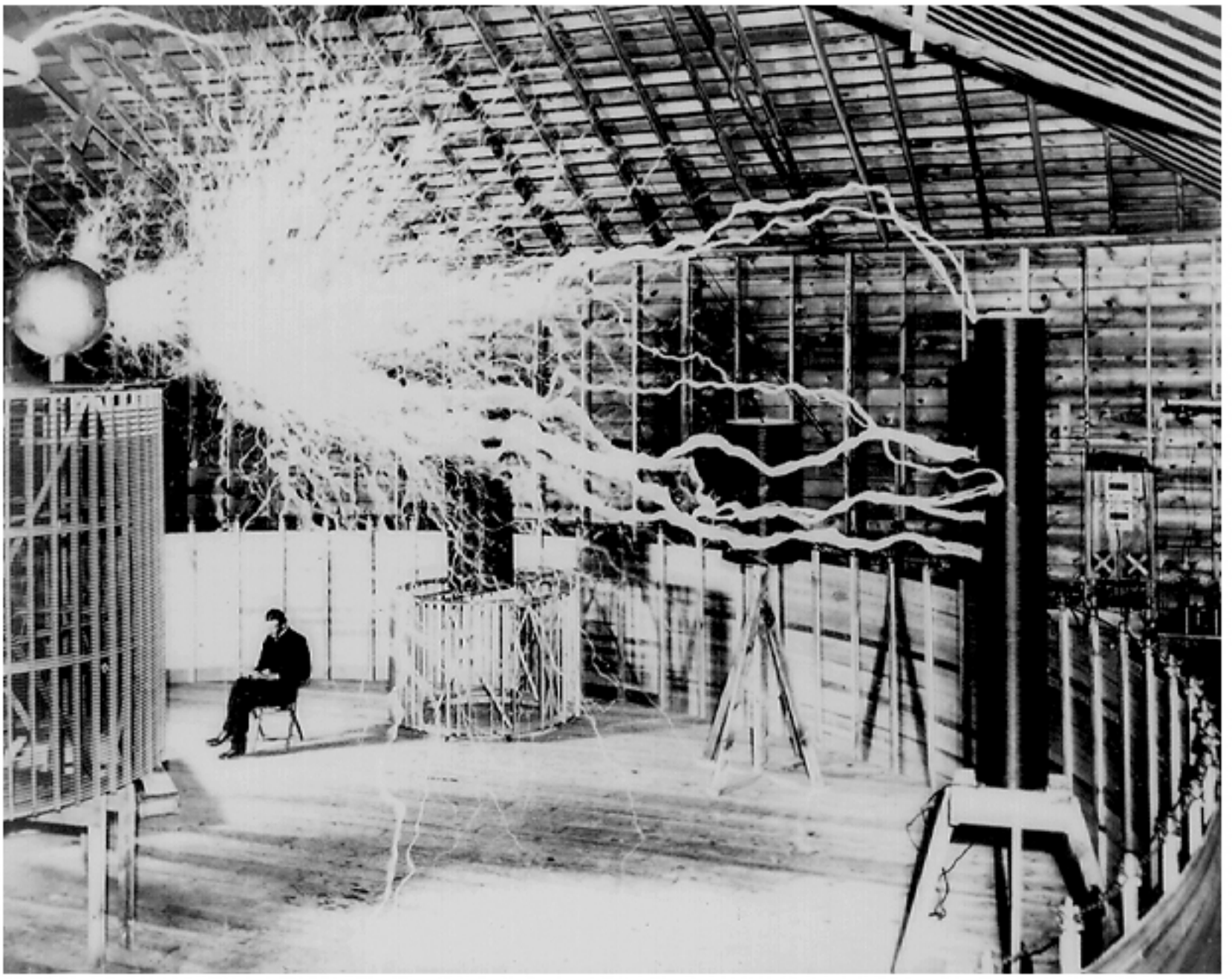


Fig. 7. EXPERIMENT TO ILLUSTRATE AN INDUCTIVE EFFECT OF AN ELECTRICAL OSCILLATOR OF GREAT POWER.

The photograph shows three ordinary incandescent lamps lighted to full candle-power by currents induced in a local loop consisting of a single wire forming a square of fifty feet each side, which includes the lamps, and which is at a distance of one hundred feet from the primary circuit energized by the oscillator. The loop likewise includes an electrical condenser, and is exactly attuned to the vibrations of the oscillator, which is worked at less than five per cent. of its total capacity.

investigation, such as I have made, of the chief forces which determine the onward movement, would be of advantage, particularly in conveying an idea of that hypothetical "velocity" which, as explained in the beginning, is a measure of human energy; but

to deal with this specifically here, as I would desire, would lead me far beyond the scope of the present subject. Suffice it to state that the resultant of all these forces is always in the direction of reason, which, therefore, determines, at any time, the direction of human movement. This is to say that every effort which is scientifically applied, rational, useful, or practical, must be in the direction in which the mass is moving. The practical, rational man, the observer, the man of business, he who reasons, calculates, or determines in advance, carefully applies his effort so that when coming into effect it will be in the direction of the movement, making it thus most efficient, and in this knowledge and ability lies the secret of his success. Every new fact discovered, every new experience or new element added to our knowledge and entering into the



Note to Fig. 8. — The coil, partly shown in the photograph, creates an alternative movement of electricity from the earth into a large reservoir and back at the rate of one hundred thousand alternations per second. The adjustments are such that the reservoir is filled full and bursts at each alternation just at the moment when the electrical pressure reaches the maximum. The discharge escapes with a deafening noise, striking an unconnected coil twenty-two feet away, and creating such a comotion of electricity in the earth that sparks an inch long can be drawn from a water-main at a distance of three hundred feet from the laboratory.

domain of reason, affects the same and, therefore, changes the direction of the movement, which, however, must always take place along the resultant of all those efforts which, at that time, we designate as reasonable, that is, self-preserving, useful, profitable, or practical. These efforts concern our daily life, our necessities and comforts, our work and business, and it is these which drive man onward.

But looking at all this busy world about us, on all this complex mass as it daily throbs and moves, what is it but an immense clockwork driven by a spring? In the morning, when we rise, we cannot fail to note that all the objects about us are manufactured by machinery: the water we use is lifted by steam-power; the trains bring our breakfast from distant localities; the elevators in our dwelling and in our office building, the cars that carry us there, are all driven by power; in all our daily errands, and in our very life-pursuit, we depend upon it; all the objects we see tell us of it; and when we return to our machine-made dwelling at night, lest we should forget it, all the material comforts of our home, our cheering stove and lamp, remind us how much we depend on power. And when there is an accidental stoppage of the machinery, when the city is snow-bound, or the life-sustaining movement otherwise temporarily arrested, we are affrighted to realize how impossible it would be for us to live the life we live without motive power. Motive power means work. To increase the force accelerating human movement means, therefore, to perform more work.

So we find that the three possible solutions of the great problem of increasing human energy are answered by the three words: *food, peace, work.* Many a year I have thought and pondered, lost myself in speculations and theories, considering man as a mass moved by a force, viewing his inexplicable movement in the light of a mechanical one, and applying the simple principles of mechanics to the analysis of the same until I arrived at these solutions, only to realize that they were taught to me in my early childhood. These three words sound the key-notes of the Christian religion. Their scientific meaning and purpose are now clear to me: food to increase the mass, peace to diminish the retarding force, and work to increase the force accelerating human movement. These are the only three solutions which are possible of that great problem, and all of them have one object, one end, namely, to increase human energy. When we recognize this, we cannot help wondering how profoundly wise and scientific and how immensely practical the Christian religion is, and in what a marked contrast it stands in this respect to other religions. It is unmistakably the result of practical experiment and scientific observation which have extended through ages, while other religions seem to be the outcome of merely abstract reasoning. Work, untiring effort, useful and accumulative, with periods of rest and recuperation aiming at higher efficiency, is its chief and ever-recurring command. Thus we are inspired both by Christianity and Science to do our utmost toward increasing the performance of mankind. This most important of human problems I shall now specifically consider.

THE SOURCE OF HUMAN ENERGY — THE THREE WAYS OF DRAWING ENERGY FROM THE SUN

First let us ask: Whence comes all the motive power? What is the spring that drives all? We see the ocean rise and fall, the rivers flow, the wind, rain, hail, and snow beat on our windows, the trains and steamers come and go; we hear the rattling noise of carriages, the voices from the street; we feel, smell, and taste; and we think of all this. And all this movement from the surging of the mighty ocean to that subtle movement concerned in our thought, has but one common cause. All this energy emanates from one single center, one single source — the sun. The sun is the spring that drives all. The sun maintains all human life and supplies all human energy. Another answer we have now found to the above great question: To increase the force accelerating human movement means to turn to the uses of man more of the sun's energy. We honor and revere those great men of bygone times whose names are linked with immortal achievements, who have proved themselves benefactors of humanity — the religious reformer with his wise maxims of life, the philosopher with his deep

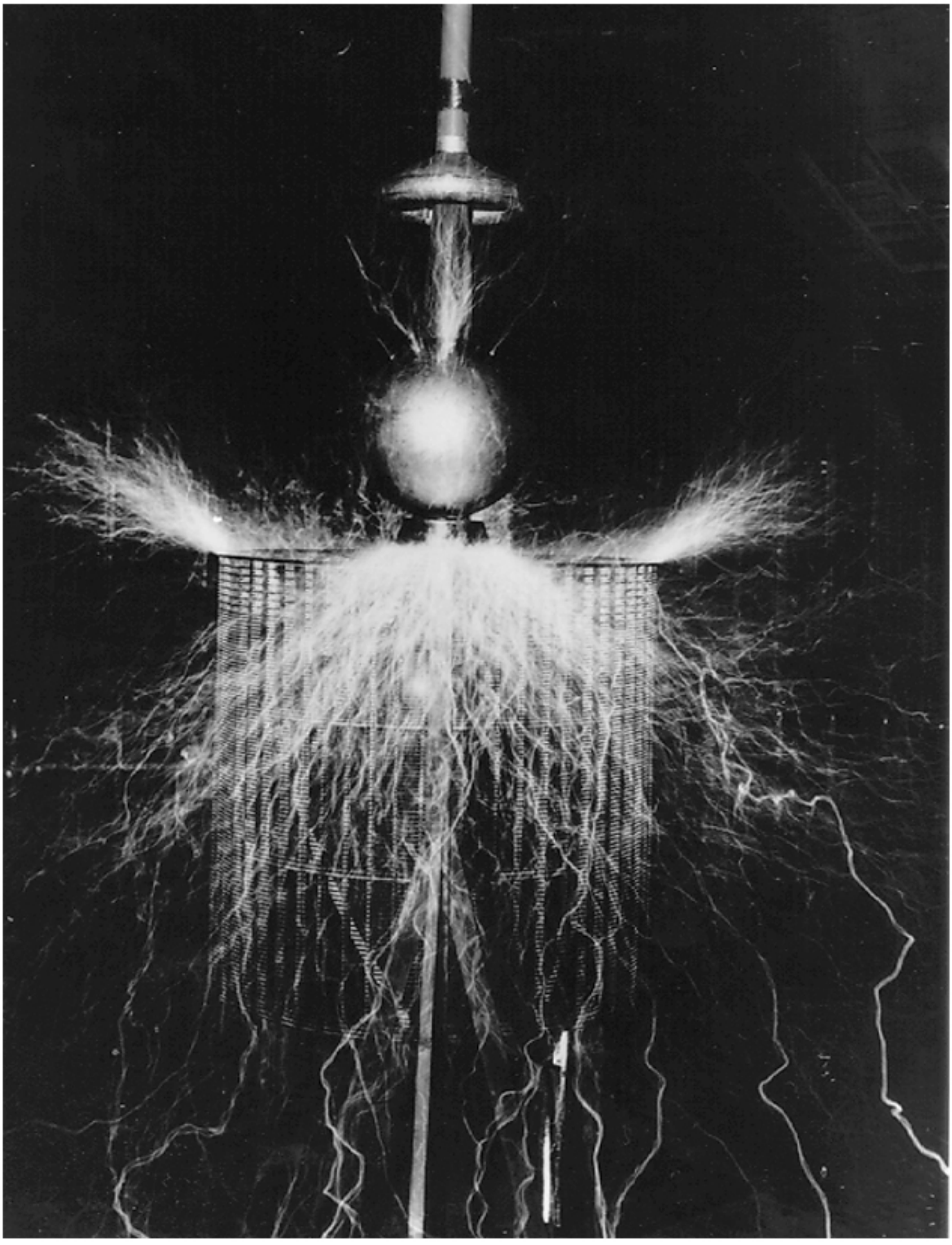


Fig. 9. EXPERIMENT TO ILLUSTRATE THE CAPACITY OF THE OSCILLATOR FOR CREATING A GREAT ELECTRICAL MOVEMENT.

The ball shown in the photograph, covered with a polished metallic coating of twenty square feet of surface, represents a large reservoir of electricity, and the inverted tin pan underneath, with a sharp rim, a big opening through which the electricity can escape before filling the reservoir. The quantity of electricity set in movement is so great that, although most of it escapes through the rim of the pan or opening provided, the ball or reservoir is nevertheless alternately emptied and filled to overflowing (as is evident from the discharge escaping on the top of the ball) one hundred and fifty thousand times per second.

truths, the mathematician with his formulae, the physicist with his laws, the discoverer with his principles and secrets wrested from nature, the artist with his forms of the beautiful; but who honors him, the greatest of all, — who can tell the name of him, — who first turned to use the sun's energy to save the effort of a weak fellow-creature? That was man's first act of scientific philanthropy, and its consequences have been incalculable.

From the very beginning three ways of drawing energy from the sun were open to man. The savage, when he warmed his frozen limbs at a fire kindled in some way, availed himself of the energy of the sun stored in the burning material. When he carried a bundle of branches to his cave and burned them there, he made use of the sun's stored energy transported from one to another locality. When he set sail to his canoe, he utilized the energy of the sun supplied to the atmosphere or ambient medium. There can be no doubt that the first is the oldest way. A fire, found accidentally, taught the savage to appreciate its beneficial heat. He then very likely conceived the idea of the carrying the glowing embers to his abode. Finally he learned to use the force of a swift current of water or air. It is characteristic of modern development that progress has been effected in the same order. The utilization of the energy stored in wood or coal, or, generally speaking, fuel, led to the steam-engine. Next a great stride in advance was made in energy-transportation by the use of electricity, which permitted the transfer of energy from one locality to another without transporting the material. But as to the utilization of the energy of the ambient medium, no radical step forward has as yet been made known.

The ultimate results of development in these three directions are: first, the burning of coal by a cold process in a battery; second, the efficient utilization of the energy of the ambient medium; and, third, the transmission without wires of electrical energy to any distance. In whatever way these results may be arrived at, their practical application will necessarily involve an extensive use of iron, and this invaluable metal will undoubtedly be an essential element in the further development along these three lines. If we succeed in burning coal by a cold process and thus obtaining electrical energy in an efficient and inexpensive manner, we shall require in many practical uses of this energy electric motors — that is, iron. If we are successful in deriving energy from the ambient medium, we shall need, both in the obtainment and utilization of the energy, machinery — again, iron. If we realize the transmission of electrical energy without wires on an industrial scale, we shall be compelled to use extensively electric generators — once more, iron. Whatever we may do, iron will probably be the chief means of accomplishment in the near future, possibly more so than in the past. How long its reign will last is difficult to tell, for even now aluminium is looming up as a threatening competitor. But for the time being, next to providing new resources of energy, it is of the greatest importance to make improvements in the manufacture and utilization of iron. Great advances are possible in these latter directions, which, if brought about, would enormously increase the useful performance of mankind.

GREAT POSSIBILITIES OFFERED BY IRON FOR INCREASING HUMAN PERFORMANCE — ENORMOUS WASTE IN IRON MANUFACTURE

Iron is by far the most important factor in modern progress. It contributes more than any other industrial product to the force accelerating human movement. So general is the use of this metal, and so intimately is it connected with all that concerns our life, that it has become as indispensable to us as the very air we breathe. Its name is synonymous with usefulness. But, however great the influence of iron may be on the present human development, it does not add to the force urging man onward nearly as much as it might. First of all, its manufacture as now carried on is connected with

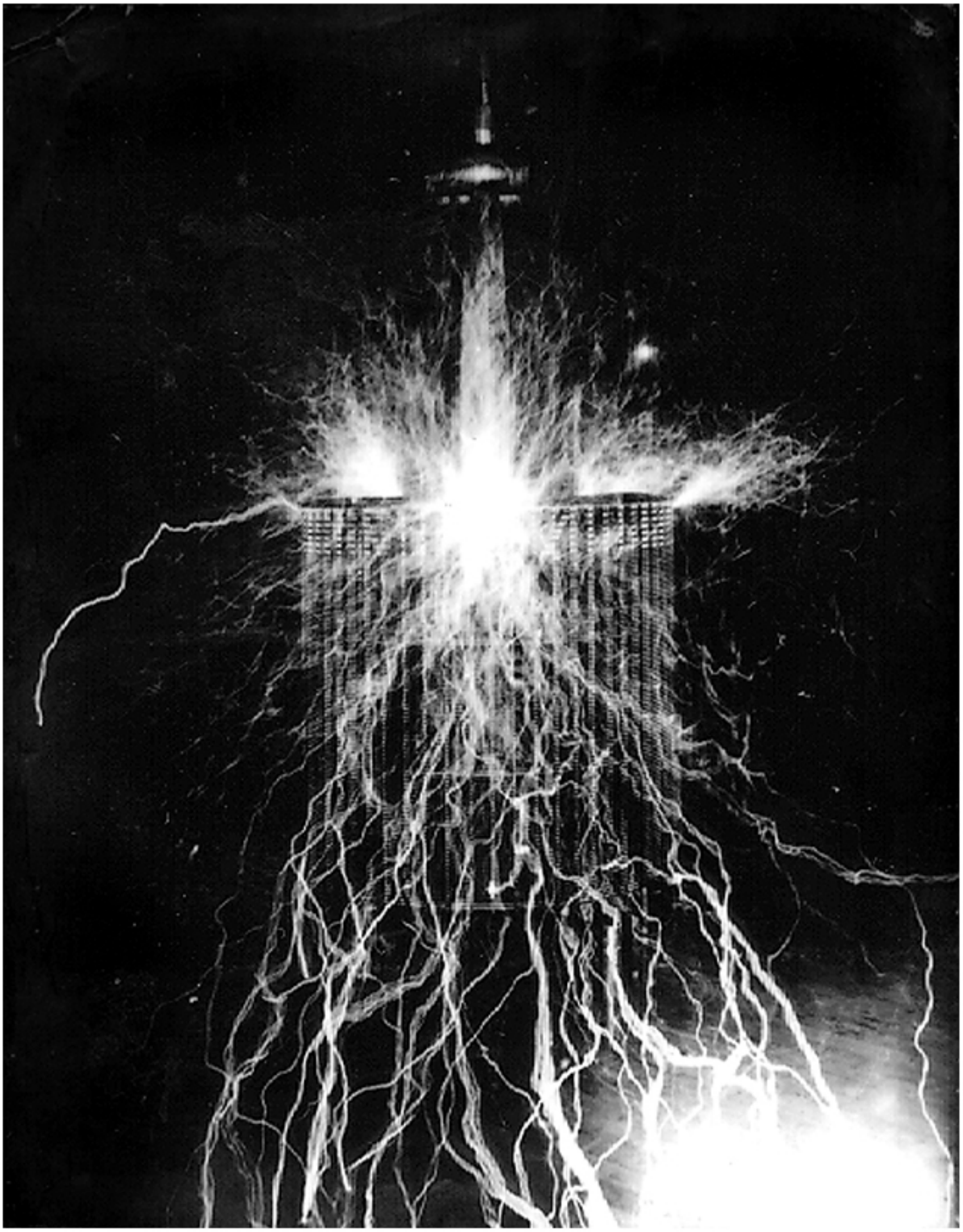


Fig. 10. PHOTOGRAPHIC VIEW OF AN EXPERIMENT TO ILLUSTRATE AN EFFECT OF AN ELECTRICAL OSCILLATOR DELIVERING ENERGY AT A RATE OF SEVENTY-FIVE THOUSAND HORSE-POWER.

The discharge, creating a strong draft owing to the heating of the air, is carried upward through the open roof of the building. The greatest width across is nearly seventy feet. The pressure is over twelve million volts, and the current alternates one hundred and thirty thousand times per second.

an appalling waste of fuel — that is, waste of energy. Then, again, only a part of all the iron produced is applied for useful purposes. A good part of it goes to create frictional resistances, while still another large part is the means of developing negative forces greatly retarding human movement. Thus the negative force of war is almost wholly represented in iron. It is impossible to estimate with any degree of accuracy the magnitude of this greatest of all retarding forces, but it is certainly very considerable. If the present positive impelling force due to all useful applications of iron be represented by ten, for instance, I should not think it exaggeration to estimate the negative force of war, with due consideration of all its retarding influences and results, at, say, six. On the basis of this estimate the effective impelling force of iron in the positive direction would be measured by the difference of these two numbers, which is four. But if, through the establishment of universal peace, the manufacture of war machinery should cease, and all struggle for supremacy between nations should be turned into healthful, ever active and productive commercial competition, then the positive impelling force due to iron would be measured by the sum of those two numbers, which is sixteen — that is, this force would have four times its present value. This example is, of course, merely intended to give an idea of the immense increase in the useful performance of mankind which would result from a radical reform of the iron industries supplying the implements of warfare.

A similar inestimable advantage in the saving of energy available to man would be secured by obviating the great waste of coal which is inseparably connected with the present methods of manufacturing iron. In some countries, as in Great Britain, the hurtful effects of this squandering of fuel are beginning to be felt. The price of coal is constantly rising, and the poor are made to suffer more and more. Though we are still far from the dreaded "exhaustion of the coal-fields", philanthropy commands us to invent novel methods of manufacturing iron, which will not involve such barbarous waste of this valuable material from which we derive at present most of our energy. It is our duty to coming generations to leave this store of energy intact for them, or at least not to touch it until we shall have perfected processes for burning coal more efficiently. Those who are to come after us will need fuel more than we do. We should be able to manufacture the iron we require by using the sun's energy, without wasting any coal at all. As an effort to this end the idea of smelting iron ores by electric currents obtained from the energy of falling water has naturally suggested itself to many. I have myself spent much time in endeavoring to evolve such a practical process, which would enable iron to be manufactured at small cost. After a prolonged investigation of the subject, finding that it was unprofitable to use the currents generated directly for smelting the ore, I devised a method which is far more economical.

ECONOMICAL PRODUCTION OF IRON BY A NEW PROCESS

The industrial project, as I worked it out six years ago, contemplated the employment of the electric currents derived from the energy of a waterfall, not directly for smelting the ore, but for decomposing water, as a preliminary step. To lessen the cost of the plant, I proposed to generate the currents in exceptionally cheap and simple dynamos, which I designed for this sole purpose. The hydrogen liberated in the electrolytic decomposition was to be burned or recombined with oxygen, not with that from which it was separated, but with that of the atmosphere. Thus very nearly the total electrical energy used up in the decomposition of the water would be recovered in the form of heat resulting from the recombination of the hydrogen. This heat was to be applied to the smelting of the ore. The oxygen gained as a by-product in the decomposition of the water I intended to use for certain other industrial purposes, which would probably yield good financial returns, inasmuch as this is the cheapest way of obtaining

this gas in large quantities. In any event, it could be employed to burn all kinds of refuse, cheap hydrocarbon, or coal of the most inferior quality which could not be burned in air or be otherwise utilized to advantage, and thus again a considerable amount of heat would be made available for the smelting of the ore. To increase the economy of the process I contemplated, furthermore, using an arrangement such that the hot metal and the products of combustion, coming out of the furnace, would give up their heat upon the cold ore going into the furnace, so that comparatively little of the heat-energy would be lost in the smelting. I calculated that probably forty thousand pounds of iron could be produced per horse-power per annum by this method. Liberal allowances were made for those losses which are unavoidable, the above quantity being about half of that theoretically obtainable. Relying on this estimate and on practical data with reference to a certain kind of sand ore existing in abundance in the region of the Great Lakes, including cost of transportation and labor, I found that in some localities iron could be manufactured in this manner cheaper than by any of the adopted methods. This result would be attained all the more surely if the oxygen obtained from the water, instead of being used for smelting the ore, as assumed, should be more profitably employed. Any new demand for this gas would secure a higher revenue from the plant, thus cheapening the iron. This project was advanced merely in the interest of industry. Some day, I hope, a beautiful industrial butterfly will come out of the dusty and shriveled chrysalis.

The production of iron from sand ores by a process of magnetic separation is highly commendable in principle, since it involves no waste of coal; but the usefulness of this method is largely reduced by the necessity of melting the iron afterward. As to the crushing of iron ore, I would consider it rational only if done by water-power, or by energy otherwise obtained without consumption of fuel. An electrolytic cold process, which would make it possible to extract iron cheaply, and also to mold it into the required forms without any fuel consumption, would, in my opinion, be a very great advance in iron manufacture. In common with some other metals, iron has so far resisted electrolytic treatment, but there can be no doubt that such a cold process will ultimately replace in metallurgy the present crude method of casting, and thus obviate the enormous waste of fuel necessitated by the repeated heating of metal in the foundries.

Up to a few decades ago the usefulness of iron was based almost wholly on its remarkable mechanical properties, but since the advent of the commercial dynamo and electric motor its value to mankind has been greatly increased by its unique magnetic qualities. As regards the latter, iron has been greatly improved of late. The signal progress began about thirteen years ago, when I discovered that in using soft Bessemer steel instead of wrought iron, as then customary, in an alternating motor, the performance of the machine was doubled. I brought this fact to the attention of Mr. Albert Schmid, to whose untiring efforts and ability is largely due the supremacy of American electrical machinery, and who was then superintendent of an industrial corporation engaged in this field. Following my suggestion, he constructed transformers of steel, and they showed the same marked improvement. The investigation was then systematically continued under Mr. Schmid's guidance, the impurities being gradually eliminated from the "steel" (which was only such in name, for in reality it was pure soft iron), and soon a product resulted which admitted of little further improvement.

THE COMING AGE OF ALUMINIUM — DOOM OF THE COPPER INDUSTRY — THE GREAT CIVILIZING POTENCY OF THE NEW METAL

With the advances made in iron of late years we have arrived virtually at the limits of improvement. We cannot hope to increase very materially its tensile strength, elasticity, hardness, or malleability, nor can we expect to make it much better as regards

its magnetic qualities. More recently a notable gain was secured by the mixture of a small percentage of nickel with the iron, but there is not much room for further advance in this direction. New discoveries may be expected, but they cannot greatly add to the valuable properties of the metal, though they may considerably reduce the cost of manufacture. The immediate future of iron is assured by its cheapness and its unrivaled mechanical and magnetic qualities. These are such that no other product can compete with it now. But there can be no doubt that, at a time not very distant, iron, in many of its now uncontested domains, will have to pass the scepter to another: the coming age will be the age of aluminium. It is cnly seventy years since this wonderful metal was discovered by Woehler, and the aluminium industry, scarcely forty years old, commands already the attention of the entire world. Such rapid growth has not been recorded in the history of civilization before. Not long ago aluminium was sold at the fanciful price of thirty or forty dollars per pound; to-day it can be had in any desired amount for as many cents. What is more, the time is not far off when this price, too, will be considered fanciful, for great improvements are possible in the methods of its manufacture. Most of the metal is now produced in the electric furnace by a process combining fusion and electrolysis, which offers a number of advantageous features, but involves naturally a great waste of the electrical energy of the current. My estimates show that the price of aluminium could be considerably reduced by adopting in its manufacture a method similar to that proposed by me for the production of iron. A pound of aluminium requires for fusion only about seventy per cent. of the heat needed for melting a pound of iron, and inasmuch as its weight is only about one third of that of the latter, a volume of aluminium four times that of iron could be obtained from a given amount of heat-energy. But a cold electrolytic process of manufacture is the ideal solution, and on this I have placed my hope.

The absolutely unavoidable consequence of the advance of the aluminium industry will be the annihilation of the copper industry. They cannot exist and prosper together, and the latter is doomed beyond any hope of recovery. Even now it is cheaper to convey an electric current through aluminium wires than through copper wires; aluminium castings cost less, and in many domestic and other uses copper has no chance of successfully competing. A further material reduction of the price of aluminium cannot but be fatal to copper. But the progress of the former will not go on unchecked, for, as it ever happens in such cases, the larger industry will absorb the smaller one: the giant copper interests will control the pygmy aluminium interests, and the slow-pacing copper will reduce the lively gait of aluminium. This will only delay, not avoid, the impending catastrophe.

Aluminium, however, will not stop at downing copper. Before many years have passed it will be engaged in a fierce struggle with iron, and in the latter it will find an adversary not easy to conquer. The issue of the contest will largely depend on whether iron shall be indispensable in electric machinery. This the future alone can decide. The magnetism as exhibited in iron is an isolated phenomenon in nature. What it is that makes this metal behave so radically different from all other materials in this respect has not yet been ascertained, though many theories have been suggested. As regards magnetism, the molecules of the various bodies behave like hollow beams partly filled with a heavy fluid and balanced in the middle in the manner of a see-saw. Evidently some disturbing influence exists in nature which causes each molecule, like such a beam, to tilt either one or the other way. If the molecules are tilted one way, the body is magnetic; if they are tilted the other way, the body is non-magnetic; but both positions are stable, as they would be in the case of the hollow beam, owing to the rushing of the fluid to the lower end. Now, the wonderful thing is that the molecules of all known bodies went one way, while those of iron went the other way. This metal, it would seem, has an origin entirely different from that of the rest of the globe. It is highly

improbable that we shall discover some other and cheaper material which will equal or surpass iron in magnetic qualities.

Unless we should make a radical departure in the character of the electric currents employed, iron will be indispensable. Yet the advantages it offers are only apparent. So long as we use feeble magnetic forces it is by far superior to any other material; but if we find ways of producing great magnetic forces, then better results will be obtainable without it. In fact, I have already produced electric transformers in which no iron is employed, and which are capable of performing ten times as much work per pound of weight as those with iron. This result is attained by using electric currents of a very high rate of vibration, produced in novel ways, instead of the ordinary currents now employed in the industries. I have also succeeded in operating electric motors without iron by such rapidly vibrating currents, but the results, so far, have been inferior to those obtained with ordinary motors constructed of iron, although theoretically the former should be capable of performing incomparably more work per unit of weight than the latter. But the seemingly insuperable difficulties which are now in the way may be overcome in the end, and then iron will be done away with, and all electric machinery will be manufactured of aluminium, in all probability, at prices ridiculously low. This would be a severe, if not a fatal, blow to iron. In many other branches of industry, as ship-building, or wherever lightness of structure is required, the progress of the new metal will be much quicker. For such uses it is eminently suitable, and is sure to supersede iron sooner or later. It is highly probable that in the course of time we shall be able to give it many of those qualities which make iron so valuable.

While it is impossible to tell when this industrial revolution will be consummated, there can be no doubt that the future belongs to aluminium, and that in times to come it will be the chief means of increasing human performance. It has in this respect capacities greater by far than those of any other metal. I should estimate its civilizing potency at fully one hundred times that of iron. This estimate, though it may astonish, is not at all exaggerated. First of all, we must remember that there is thirty times as much aluminium as iron in bulk, available for the uses of man. This in itself offers great possibilities. Then, again, the new metal is much more easily workable, which adds to its value. In many of its properties it partakes of the character of a precious metal, which gives it additional worth. Its electric conductivity, which, for a given weight, is greater than that of any other metal, would be alone sufficient to make it one of the most important factors in future human progress. Its extreme lightness makes it far more easy to transport the objects manufactured. By virtue of this property it will revolutionize naval construction, and in facilitaing transport and travel it will add enormously to the useful performance of mankind. But its greatest civilizing potency will be, I believe, in aerial travel, which is sure to be brought about by means of it. Telegraphic instruments will slowly enlighten the barbarian. Electric motors and lamps will do it more quickly, but quicker than anything else the flying-machine will do it. By rendering travel ideally easy it will be the best means for unifying the heterogeneous elements of humanity. As the first step toward this realization we should produce a lighter storage-battery or get more energy from coal.

EFFORTS TOWARD OBTAINING MORE ENERGY FROM COAL — THE ELECTRIC TRANSMISSION — THE GAS-ENGINE — THE COLD-COAL BATTERY

I remember that at one time I considered the production of electricity by burning coal in a battery as the greatest achievement toward advancing civilization, and I am surprised to find how much the continuous study of these subjects has modified my

views. It now seems to me that to burn coal, however efficiently, in a battery would be a mere makeshift, a phace in the evolution toward something much more perfect. After all, in generating electricity in this manner, we should be destroying material, and this would be a barbarous process. We ought to be able to obtain the energy we need without consumption of material. But I am far from underrating the value of such an efficient method of burning fuel. At the present time most motive power comes from coal, and, either directly or by its products, it adds vastly to human energy. Unfortunately, in all the processes now adopted, the larger portion of the energy of the coal is uselessly dissipated. The best steam-engines utilize only a small part of the total energy. Even in gas-engines, in which, particularly of late, better results are obtainable, there is still a barbarous waste going on. In our electric-lighting systems we scarcely utilize one third of one per cent., and in lighting by gas a much smaller fraction of the total energy of the coal. Considering the various uses of coal throughout the world, we certainly do not utilize more than two per cent, of its energy theoretically available. The man who should stop this senseless waste would be a great benefactor of humanity, though the solution he would offer could not be a permanent one, since it would ultimately lead to the exhaustion of the store of material. Efforts toward obtaining more energy from coal are now being made chiefly in two directions — by generating electricity and by producing gas for motive-power purposes. In both of these lines notable success has already been achieved.

The advent of the alternating-current system of electric power-transmission marks an epoch in the economy of energy available to man from coal. Evidently all electrical energy obtained from a waterfall, saving so much fuel, is a net gain to mankind, which is all the more effective as it is secured with little expenditure of human effort, and as this most perfect of all known methods of deriving energy from the sun contributes in many ways to the advancement of civilization. But electricity enables us also to get from coal much more energy than was practicable in the old ways. Instead of transporting the coal to distant places of consumption, we burn it near the mine, develop electricity in the dynamos, and transmit the current to remote localities, thus effecting a considerable saving. Instead of driving the machinery in a factory in the old wasteful way by belts and shafting, we generate electricity by steam-power and operate electric motors. In this manner it is not uncommon to obtain two or three times as much effective motive power from the fuel, besides securing many other important advantages. It is in this field as much as in the transmission of energy to great distances that the alternating system, with its ideally simple machinery, is bringing about an industrial revolution. But in many lines this progress has not yet been felt. For example, steamers and trains are still being propelled by the direct application of steam-power to shafts or axles. A much greater percentage of the heat-energy of the fuel could be transformed in motive energy by using, in place of the adopted marine engines and locomotives, dynamos driven by specially designed high-pressure steam- or gas-engines and by utilizing the electricity generated for the propulsion. A gain of fifty to one hundred per cent. in the effective energy derived from the coal could be secured in this manner. It is difficult to understand why a fact so plain and obvious is not receiving more attention from engineers. In ocean steamers such an improvement would be particularly desirable, as it would do away with noise and increase materially the speed and the carrying capacity of the liners.

Still more energy is now being obtained from coal by the latest improved gas-engine, the economy of which is, on the average, probably twice that of the best steam-engine. The introduction of the gas-engine is very much facilitated by the importance of the gas industry. With the increasing use of the electric light more and more of the gas is utilized for heating and motive-power purposes. In many instances gas is manufactured close to the coal-mine and conveyed to distant places of consumption.

a considerable saving both in the cost of transportation and in utilization of the energy of the fuel being thus effected. In the present state of the mechanical and electrical arts the most rational way of deriving energy from coal is evidently to manufacture gas close to the coal store, and to utilize it, either on the spot or elsewhere, to generate electricity for industrial uses in dynamos driven by gas-engines. The commercial success of such a plant is largely dependent upon the production of gas-engines of great nominal horse-power, which, judging from the keen activity in this field, will soon be forthcoming. Instead of consuming coal directly, as usual, gas should be manufactured from it and burned to economize energy.

But all such improvements cannot be more than passing phases in the evolution toward something far more perfect, for ultimately we must succeed in obtaining electricity from coal in a more direct way, involving no great loss of its heat-energy. Whether coal can be oxidized by a cold process is still a question. Its combination with oxygen always evolves heat, and whether the energy of the combination of the carbon with another element can be turned directly into electrical energy has not yet been determined. Under certain conditions nitric acid will burn the carbon, generating an electric current, but the solution does not remain cold. Other means of oxidizing coal have been proposed, but they have offered no promise of leading to an efficient process. My own lack of success has been complete, though perhaps not quite so complete as that of some who have "perfected" the cold-coal battery. This problem is essentially one for the chemist to solve. It is not for the physicist, who determines all his results in advance, so that, when the experiment is tried, it cannot fail. Chemistry, though a positive science, does not yet admit of a solution by such positive methods as those which are available in the treatment of many physical problems. The result, if possible, will be arrived at through patient trying rather than through deduction or calculation. The time will soon come, however, when the chemist will be able to follow a course clearly mapped out beforehand, and when the process of his arriving at a desired result will be purely constructive. The cold-coal battery would give a great impetus to electrical development; it would lead very shortly to a practical flying-machine, and would enormously enhance the introduction of the automobile. But these and many other problems will be better solved, and in a more scientific manner, by a light-storage battery.

ENERGY FROM THE MEDIUM — THE WINDMILL AND THE SOLAR ENGINE — MOTIVE POWER FROM TERRESTRIAL HEAT — ELECTRICITY FROM NATURAL SOURCES

Besides fuel, there is abundant material from which we might eventually derive power. An immense amount of energy is locked up in limestone, for instance, and machines can be driven by liberating the carbonic acid through sulphuric acid or otherwise. I once constructed such an engine, and it operated satisfactorily.

But, whatever our resources of primary energy may be in the future, we must, to be rational, obtain it without consumption of any material. Long ago I came to this conclusion, and to arrive at this result only two ways, as before indicated, appeared possible — either to turn to use the energy of the sun stored in the ambient medium, or to transmit, through the medium, the sun's energy to distant places from some locality where it was obtainable without consumption of material. At that time I at once rejected the latter method as entirely impracticable, and turned to examine the possibilities of the former.

It is difficult to believe, but it is, nevertheless, a fact, that since time immemorial man has had at his disposal a fairly good machine which has enabled him to utilize the energy of the ambient medium. This machine is the windmill. Contrary to popular

belief, the power obtainable from wind is very considerable. Many a deluded inventor has spent years of his life in endeavoring to "harness the tides," and some have even proposed to compress air by tide- or wave-power for supplying energy, never understanding the signs of the old windmill on the hill, as it sorrowfully waved its arms about and bade them stop. The fact is that a wave- or tide-motor would have, as a rule, but a small chance of competing commercially with the windmill, which is by far the better machine, allowing a much greater amount of energy to be obtained in a simpler way. Wind-power has been, in old times, of inestimable value to man, if for nothing else but for enabling him to cross the seas, and it is even now a very important factor in travel and transportation. But there are great limitations in this ideally simple method of utilizing the sun's energy. The machines are large for a given output, and the power is intermittent, thus necessitating the storage of energy and increasing the cost of the plant.

A far better way, however, to obtain power would be to avail ourselves of the sun's rays, which beat the earth incessantly and supply energy at a maximum rate of over four million horse-power per square mile. Although the average energy received per square mile in any locality during the year is only a small fraction of that amount, yet an inexhaustible source of power would be opened up by the discovery of some efficient method of utilizing the energy of the rays. The only rational way known to me at the time when I began the study of this subject was to employ some kind of heat- or thermodynamic engine, driven by a volatile fluid evaporated in a boiler by the heat of the rays. But closer investigation of this method, and calculation, showed that, notwithstanding the apparently vast amount of energy received from the sun's rays, only a small fraction of that energy could be actually utilized in this manner. Furthermore, the energy supplied through the sun's radiations is periodical, and the same limitations as in the use of the windmill I found to exist here also. After a long study of this mode of obtaining motive power from the sun, taking into account the necessarily large bulk of the boiler, the low efficiency of the heat-engine, the additional cost of storing the energy, and other drawbacks, I came to the conclusion that the "solar engine," a few instances excepted, could not be industrially exploited with success.

Another way of getting motive power from the medium without consuming any material would be to utilize the heat contained in the earth, the water, or the air for driving an engine. It is a well-known fact that the interior portions of the globe are very hot, the temperature rising, as observations show, with the approach to the center at the rate of approximately 1^0 C. for every hundred feet of depth. The difficulties of sinking shafts and placing boilers at depths of, say, twelve thousand feet, corresponding to an increase in temperature of about 120^0 C., are not insuperable, and we could certainly avail ourselves in this way of the internal heat of the globe. In fact, it would not be necessary to go to any depth at all in order to derive energy from the stored terrestrial heat. The superficial layers of the earth and the air strata close to the same are at a temperature sufficiently high to evaporate some extremely volatile substances, which we might use in our boilers instead of water. There is no doubt that a vessel might be propelled on the ocean by an engine driven by such a volatile fluid, no other energy being used but the heat abstracted from the water. But the amount of power which could be obtained in this manner would be, without further provision, very small.

Electricity produced by natural causes is another source of energy which might be rendered available. Lightning discharges involve great amounts of electrical energy, which we could utilize by transforming and storing it. Some years ago I made known a method of electrical transformation which renders the first part of this task easy, but the storing of the energy of lightning discharges will be difficult to accomplish.

It is well known, furthermore, that electric currents circulate constantly through the earth, and that there exists between the earth and any air stratum a difference of electrical pressure, which varies in proportion to the height.

In recent experiments I have discovered two novel facts of importance in this connection. One of these facts is that an electric current is generated in a wire extending from the ground to a great height by the axial, and probably also by the translatory, movement of the earth. No appreciable current, however, will flow continuously in the wire unless the electricity is allowed to leak out into the air. Its escape is greatly facilitated by providing at the elevated end of the wire a conducting terminal of great surface, with many sharp edges or points. We are thus enabled to get a continuous supply of electrical energy by merely supporting a wire at a height, but, unfortunately, the amount of electricity which can be so obtained is small.

The second fact which I have ascertained is that the upper air strata are permanently charged with electricity opposite to that of the earth. So, at least, I have interpreted my observations, from which it appears that the earth, with its adjacent insulating and outer conducting envelop, constitutes a highly charged electrical condenser containing, in all probability, a great amount of electrical energy which might be turned to the uses of man, if it were possible to reach with a wire to great altitudes.

It is possible, and even probable, that there will be, in time, other resources of energy opened up, of which we have no knowledge now. We may even find ways of applying forces such as magnetism or gravity for driving machinery without using any other means. Such realizations, though highly improbable, are not impossible. An example will best convey an idea of what we can hope to attain and what we can never attain. Imagine a disk of some homogeneous material turned perfectly true and arranged to turn in frictionless bearings on a horizontal shaft above the ground. This disk, being under the above conditions perfectly balanced, would rest in any position. Now, it is possible that we may learn how to make such a disk rotate continuously and perform work by the force of gravity without any further effort on our part; but it is perfectly impossible for the disk to turn and to do work without any force from the outside. If it could do so, it would be what is designated scientifically as a "perpetuum mobile," a machine creating its own motive power. To make the disk rotate by the force of gravity we have only to invent a screen against this force. By such a screen we could prevent this force from acting on one half of the disk, and the rotation of the latter would follow. At least, we cannot deny such a possibility until we know exactly the nature of the force of gravity. Suppose that this force were due to a movement comparable to that of a stream of air passing from above toward the center of the earth. The effect of such a stream upon both halves of the disk would be equal, and the latter would not rotate ordinarily; but if one half should be guarded by a plate arresting the movement, then it would turn.

A DEPARTURE FROM KNOWN METHODS — POSSIBILITY OF A "SELF-ACTING" ENGINE OR MACHINE, INANIMATE, YET CAPABLE, LIKE A LIVING BEING, OF DERIVING ENERGY FROM THE MEDIUM — THE IDEAL WAY OF OBTAINING MOTIVE POWER

When I began the investigation of the subject under consideration, and when the preceding or similar ideas presented themselves to me for the first time, though I was then unacquainted with a number of the facts mentioned, a survey of the various ways of utilizing the energy of the medium convinced me, nevertheless, that to arrive at a thoroughly satisfactory practical solution a radical departure from the methods then known had to be made. The windmill, the solar engine, the engine driven by terrestrial heat, had their limitations in the amount of power obtainable. Some new way had to

be discovered which would enable us to get more energy. There was enough heat-energy in the medium, but only a small part of it was available for the operation of an engine in the ways then known. Besides, the energy was obtainable only at a very slow rate. Clearly, then, the problem was to discover some new method which would make it possible both to utilize more of the heat-energy of the medium and also to draw it away from the same at a more rapid rate.

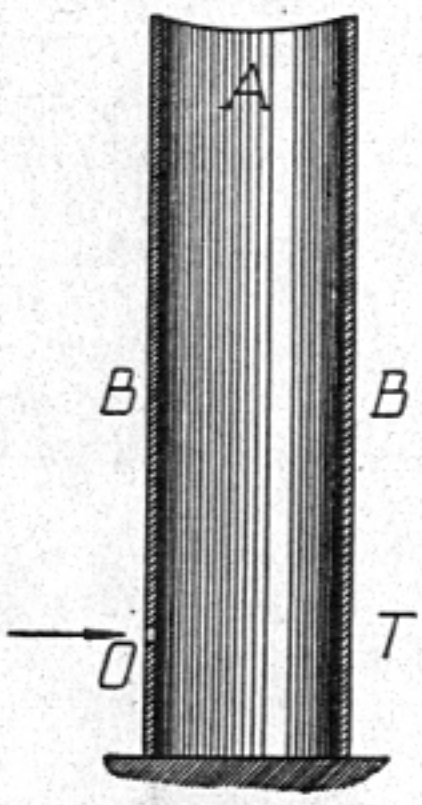


Diagram b. OBTAINING ENERGY FROM THE AMBIENT MEDIUM.

A, medium with little energy; *B, B*, ambient medium with much energy; *O*, path of the energy.

I was vainly endeavoring to form an idea of how this might be accomplished, when I read some statements from Carnot and Lord Kelvin (then Sir William Thomson) which meant virtually that it is impossible for an inanimate mechanism of self-acting machine to cool a portion of the medium below the temperature of the surrounding, and operate by the heat abstracted. These statements interested me intensely. Evidently a living being could do this very thing, and since the experiences of my early life which I have related had convinced me that a living being is only an automaton, or, otherwise stated, a "self-acting engine," I came to the conclusion that it was possible to construct a machine which would do the same. As the first step toward this realization I conceived the following mechanism. Imagine a thermopile consisting of a number of bars of metal extending from the earth to the outer space beyond the atmosphere. The heat from below, conducted upward along these metal bars, would cool the earth or the sea or the air, according to the location of the lower parts of the bars, and the result, as is well known, would be an electric current circulating in these bars. The two terminals of the thermopile could now be joined through an electric motor, and, theoretically, this motor would run on and on, until the media below would be cooled down to the temperature of the outer space. This would be an inanimate engine which, to all evidence, would be cooling a portion of the medium below the temperature of the surrounding, and operating by the heat abstracted.

But was it not possible to realize a similar condition without necessarily going to a height? Conceive, for the sake of illustration, an inclosure *T*, as illustrated in diagram *b*, such that energy could not be transferred across it except through a channel or path *O*, and that, by some means or other, in this inclosure a medium were maintained which would have little energy, and that on the outer side of the same there would be the ordinary ambient medium with much energy. Under these assumptions the energy would flow through the path *O*, as indicated by the arrow, and might then be converted on its passage into some other form of energy. The question was, Could such a condition be attained? Could we produce artificially such a "sink" for the energy of the ambient medium to flow in? Suppose that an extremely low temperature could be maintained by some process in a given space; the surrounding medium would then be compelled to give off heat, which could be converted into mechanical or other form of energy, and utilized. By realizing such a plan, we should be enabled to get at any point of the globe a continuous supply of energy, day and night. More than this, reasoning in the abstract, it would seem possible to cause a quick circulation of the medium, and thus draw the energy at a very rapid rate.

Here, then, was an idea which, if realizable, afforded a happy solution of the problem of getting energy from the medium. But was it realizable? I convinced myself that it was so in a number of ways, of which one is the following. As regards heat, we

are at a high level, which may be represented by the surface of a mountain lake considerably above the sea, the level of which may mark the absolute zero of temperature existing in the interstellar space. Heat, like water, flows from high to low level, and, consequently, just as we can let the water of the lake run down to the sea, so we are able to let heat from the earth's surface travel up into the cold region above. Heat, like water, can perform work in flowing down, and if we had any doubt as to whether we could derive energy from the medium by means of a thermopile, as before described, it would be dispelled by this analogue. But can we produce cold in a given portion of the space and cause the heat to flow in continually? To create such a "sink," or "cold hole," as we might say, in the medium, would be equivalent to producing in the lake a space either empty or filled with something much lighter than water. This we could do by placing in the lake a tank, and pumping all the water out of the latter. We know, then, that the water, if allowed to flow back into the tank, would, theoretically, be able to perform exactly the same amount of work which was used in pumping it out, but not a bit more. Consequently nothing could be gained in this double operation of first raising the water and then letting it fall down. This would mean that it is impossible to create such a sink in the medium. But let us reflect a moment. Heat, though following certain general laws of mechanics, like a fluid, is not such; it is energy which may be converted into other forms of energy as it passes from a high to a low level. To make our mechanical analogy complete and true, we must, therefore, assume that the water, in its passage into the tank, is converted into something else, which may be taken out of it without using any, or by using very little, power. For example, if heat be represented in this analogue by the water of the lake, the oxygen and hydrogen composing the water may illustrate other forms of energy into which the heat is transformed in passing from hot to cold. If the process of heat-transformation were absolutely perfect, no heat at all would arrive at the low level, since all of it would be converted into other forms of energy. Corresponding to this ideal case, all the water flowing into the tank would be decomposed into oxygen and hydrogen before reaching the bottom, and the result would be that water would continually flow in, and yet the tank would remain entirely empty, the gases formed escaping. We would thus produce, by expending initially a certain amount of work to create a sink for the heat or, respectively, the water to flow in, a condition enabling us to get any amount of energy without further effort. This would be an ideal way of obtaining motive power. We do not know of any such absolutely perfect process of heat-conversion, and consequently some heat will generally reach the low level, which means to say, in our mechanical analogue, that some water will arrive at the bottom of the tank, and a gradual and slow filling of the latter will take place, necessitating continuous pumping out. But evidently there will be less to pump out than flows in, or, in other words, less energy will be needed to maintain the initial condition than is developed by the fall, and this is to say that some energy will be gained from the medium. What is not converted in flowing down can just be raised up with its own energy, and what is converted is clear gain. Thus the virtue of the principle I have discovered resides wholly in the conversion of the energy on the downward flow.

FIRST EFFORTS TO PRODUCE THE SELF-ACTING ENGINE — THE MECHANICAL OSCILLATOR — WORK OF DEWAR AND LINDE — LIQUID AIR

Having recognized this truth, I began to devise means for carrying out my idea, and, after long thought, I finally conceived a combination of apparatus which should make possible the obtaining of power from the medium by a process of continuous cooling of atmospheric air. This apparatus, by continually transforming heat into

mechanical work, tended to become colder and colder, and if it only were practicable to reach a very low temperature in this manner, then a sink for the heat could be produced, and energy could be derived from the medium. This seemed to be contrary to the statements of Carnot and Lord Kelvin before referred to, but I concluded from the theory of the process that such a result could be attained. This conclusion I reached, I think, in the latter part of 1883, when I was in Paris, and it was at a time when my mind was being more and more dominated by an invention which I had evolved during the preceding year, and which has since become known under the name of the "rotating magnetic field." During the few years which followed I elaborated further the plan I had imagined, and studied the working conditions, but made little headway. The commercial introduction in this country of the invention before referred to required most of my energies until 1889, when I again took up the idea of the self-acting machine. A closer investigation of the principles involved, and calculation, now showed that the result I aimed at could not be reached in a practical manner by ordinary machinery, as I had in the beginning expected. This led me, as a next step, to the study of a type of engine generally designated as "turbine," which at first seemed to offer better chances for a realization of the idea. Soon I found, however, that the turbine, too, was unsuitable. But my conclusions showed that if an engine of a peculiar kind could be brought to a high degree of perfection, the plan I had conceived was realizable, and I resolved to proceed with the development of such an engine, the primary object of which was to secure the greatest economy of transformation of heat into mechanical energy. A characteristic feature of the engine was that the work-performing piston was not connected with anything else, but was perfectly free to vibrate at an enormous rate. The mechanical difficulties encountered in the construction of this engine were greater than I had anticipated, and I made slow progress. This work was continued until early in 1892, when I went to London, where I saw Professor Dewar's admirable experiments with liquefied gases. Others had liquefied gases before, and notably Ozlewski and Pictet had performed creditable early experiments in this line, but there was such a vigor about the work of Dewar that even the old appeared new. His experiments showed, though in a way different from that I had imagined, that it was possible to reach a very low temperature by transforming heat into mechanical work, and I returned, deeply impressed with what I had seen, and more than ever convinced that my plan was practicable. The work temporarily interrupted was taken up anew, and soon I had in a fair state of perfection the engine which I have named "the mechanical oscillator." In this machine I succeeded in doing away with all packings, valves, and lubrication, and in producing so rapid a vibration of the piston that shafts of tough steel, fastened to the same and vibrated longitudinally, were torn asunder. By combining this engine with a dynamo of special design I produced a highly efficient electrical generator, invaluable in measurements and determinations of physical quantities on account of the unvarying rate of oscillation obtainable by its means. I exhibited several types of this machine, named "mechanical and electrical oscillator," before the Electrical Congress at the World's Fair in Chicago during the summer of 1893, in a lecture which, on account of other pressing work, I was unable to prepare for publication. On that occasion I exposed the principles of the mechanical oscillator, but the original purpose of this machine is explained here for the first time.

In the process, as I had primarily conceived it, for the utilization of the energy of the ambient medium, there were five essential elements in combination, and each of these had to be newly designed and perfected, as no such machines existed. The mechanical oscillator was the first element of this combination, and having perfected this, I turned to the next, which was an air-compressor of a design in certain respects resembling that of the mechanical oscillator. Similar difficulties in the construction were again encountered, but the work was pushed vigorously, and at the close of 1894

I had completed these two elements of the combination, and thus produced an apparatus for compressing air, virtually to any desired pressure, incomparably simpler, smaller, and more efficient than the ordinary. I was just beginning work on the third element, which together with the first two would give a refrigerating machine of exceptional efficiency and simplicity, when a misfortune befell me in the burning of my laboratory, which crippled my labors and delayed me. Shortly afterwards Dr. Carl Linde announced the liquefaction of air by a self-cooling process, demonstrating that it was practicable to proceed with the cooling until liquefaction of the air took place. This was the only experimental proof which I was still wanting that energy was obtainable from the medium in the manner contemplated by me.

The liquefaction of air by a self-cooling process was not, as popularly believed, an accidental discovery, but a scientific result which could not have been delayed much longer, and which, in all probability, could not have escaped Dewar. This fascinating advance, I believe, is largely due to the powerful work of this great Scotchman. Nevertheless, Linde's is an immortal achievement. The manufacture of liquid air has been carried on for four years in Germany, on a scale much larger than in any other country, and this strange product has been applied for a variety of purposes. Much was expected of it in the beginning, but so far it has been an industrial ignis fatuus. By the use of such machinery as I am perfecting, its cost will probably be greatly lessened, but even then its commercial success will be questionable. When used as a refrigerant it is uneconomical, as its temperature is unnecessarily low. It is as expensive to maintain a body at a very low temperature as it is to keep it very hot; it takes coal to keep air cold. In oxygen manufacture it cannot yet compete with the electrolytic method. For use as an explosive it is unsuitable, because its low temperature again condemns it to a small efficiency, and for motive-power purposes its cost is still by far too high. It is of interest to note, however, that in driving an engine by liquid air a certain amount of energy may be gained from the engine, or, stated otherwise, from the ambient medium which keeps the engine warm, each two hundred pounds of ironcasting of the latter contributing energy at the rate of about one effective horse-power during one hour. But this gain of the consumer is offset by an equal loss of the producer.

Much of this task on which I have labored so long remains to be done. A number of mechanical details are still to be perfected and some difficulties of a different nature to be mastered, and I cannot hope to produce a self-acting machine deriving energy from the ambient medium for a long time yet, even if all my expectations should materialize. Many circumstances have occurred which have retarded my work of late, but for several reasons the delay was beneficial.

One of these reasons was that I had ample time to consider what the ultimate possibilities of this development might be. I worked for a long time fully convinced that the practical realization of this method of obtaining energy from the sun would be of incalculable industrial value, but the continued study of the subject revealed the fact that while it will be commercially profitable if my expectations are well founded, it will not be so to an extraordinary degree.

DISCOVERY OF UNEXPECTED PROPERTIES OF THE ATMOSPHERE — STRANGE EXPERIMENTS — TRANSMISSION OF ELECTRICAL ENERGY THROUGH ONE WIRE WITHOUT RETURN — TRANSMISSION THROUGH THE EARTH WITHOUT ANY WIRE

Another of these reasons was that I was led to recognize the transmission of electrical energy to any distance through the media as by far the best solution of the great problem of harnessing the sun's energy for the uses of man. For a long time I was convinced that such a transmission on an industrial scale could never be realized, but

a discovery which I made changed my view. I observed that under certain conditions the atmosphere, which is normally a high insulator, assumes conducting properties, and so becomes capable of conveying any amount of electrical energy. But the difficulties in the way of a practical utilization of this discovery for the purpose of transmitting electrical energy without wires were seemingly insuperable. Electrical pressures of many millions of volts had to be produced and handled; generating apparatus of a novel kind, capable of withstanding the immense electrical stresses, had to be invented and perfected, and a complete safety against the dangers of the high-tension currents had to be attained in the system before its practical introduction could be even thought of. All this could not be done in a few weeks or months, or even years. The work required patience and constant application, but the improvements came, though slowly. Other valuable results were, however, arrived at in the course of this long-continued work, of which I shall endeavor to give a brief account, enumerating the chief advances as they were successively effected.

The discovery of the conducting properties of the air, though unexpected, was only a natural result of experiments in a special field which I had carried on for some years before. It was, I believe, during 1889 that certain possibilities offered by extremely rapid electrical oscillations determined me to design a number of special machines adapted for their investigation. Owing to the peculiar requirements, the construction of these machines was very difficult, and consumed much time and effort; but my work on them was generously rewarded, for I reached by their means several novel and important results. One of the earliest observations I made with these new machines was that electrical oscillations of an extremely high rate act in an extraordinary manner upon the human organism. Thus, for instance, I demonstrated that powerful electrical discharges of several hundred thousand volts, which at that time were considered absolutely deadly, could be passed through the body without inconvenience or hurtful consequences. These oscillations produced other specific physiological effects, which, upon my announcement, were eagerly taken up by skilled physicians and further investigated. This new field has proved itself fruitful beyond expectation, in the few years which have passed since, it has been developed to such an extent that it now forms a legitimate and important department of medical science. Many results, thought impossible at that time, are now readily obtainable with these oscillations, and many experiments undreamed of then can now be readily performed by their means. I still remember with pleasure how, nine years ago, I passed the discharge of a powerful induction-coil through my body to demonstrate before a scientific society the comparative harmlessness of very rapidly vibrating electric currents, and I can still recall the astonishment of my audience. I would now undertake, with much less apprehension than I had in that experiment, to transmit through my body with such currents the entire electrical energy of the dynamos now working at Niagara — forty or fifty thousand horse-power. I have produced electrical oscillations which were of such intensity that when circulating through my arms and chest they have melted wires which joined my hands, and still I felt no inconvenience. I have energized with such oscillations a loop of heavy copper wire so powerfully that masses of metal, and even objects of an electrical resistance specifically greater than that of human tissue, brought close to or placed within the loop, were heated to a high temperature and melted, often with the violence of an explosion, and yet into this very space in which this terribly destructive turmoil was going on I have repeatedly thrust my head without feeling anything or experiencing injurious after-effects.

Another observation was that by means of such oscillations light could be produced in a novel and more economical manner, which promised to lead to an ideal system of electric illumination by vacuum-tubes, dispensing with the necessity of renewal of lamps or incandescent filaments. and possibly also with the use of wires in the interior

of buildings. The efficiency of this light increases in proportion to the rate of the oscillations, and its commercial success is, therefore, dependent on the economical production of electrical vibrations of transcending rates. In this direction I have met with gratifying success of late, and the practical intoduction of this new system of illumination is not far off.

The investigations led to many other valuable observations and results, one of the more important of which was the demonstration of the practicability of supplying electrical energy through one wire without return. At first I was able to transmit in this novel manner only very small amounts of electrical energy, but in this line also my efforts have been rewarded with similar success.

The photograph shown in Fig. 3 illustrates, as its title explains, an actual transmission of this kind effected with apparatus used in other experiments here described. To what a degree the appliances have been perfected since my first demonstrations early in 1891 before a scientific society, when my apparatus was barely capable of lighting one lamp (which result was considered wonderful), will appear when I state that I have now no difficulty in lighting in this manner four or five hundred lamps, and could light many more. In fact, there is no limit to the amount of energy which may in this way be supplied to operate any kind of electrical device.

After demonstrating the practicability of this method of transmission, the thought naturally occurred to me to use the earth as a conductor, thus dispensing with all wires. Whatever electricity may be, it is a fact that it behaves like an incompressible fluid, and the earth may be looked upon as an immense reservoir of electricity, which, I thought, could be disturbed effectively by a properly designed electrical machine. Accordingly, my next efforts were directed toward perfecting a special apparatus which would be highly effective in creating a disturbance of electricity in the earth. The progress in this new direction was necessarily very slow and the work discouraging, until I finally succeeded in perfecting a novel kind of transformer or induction-coil, particularly suited for this special purpose. That it is practicable, in this manner, not only to transmit minute amounts of electrical energy for operating delicate electrical devices, as I contemplated at first, but also electrical energy in appreciable quantities, will appear from an inspection of Fig. 4, which illustrates an actual experiment of this kind performed with the same apparatus. The result obtained was all the more remarkable as the top end of the coil was not connected to a wire or plate for magnifying the effect.

"WIRELESS" TELEGRAPHY — THE SECRET OF TUNING — ERRORS IN THE HERTZIAN INVESTIGATIONS — A RECEIVER OF WONDERFUL SENSITIVENESS

As the first valuable result of my experiments in this latter line a system of telegraphy without wires resulted, which I described in two scientific lectures in February and March, 1893. It is mechanically illustrated in diagram *c*, the upper part of which shows the electrical arrangement as I described it then, while the lower part illustrates its mechanical analogue. The system is extremely simple in principle. Imagine two tuning-forks F, F_1, one at the sending and the other at the receiving-station respectively, each having attached to its lower prong a minute piston p, fitting in a cylinder. Both the cylinders communicate with a large reservoir R, with elastic walls, which is supposed to be closed and filled with a light and incompressible fluid. By striking repeatedly one of the prongs of the tuning-fork F, the small piston p below would be vibrated, and its vibrations, transmitted through the fluid, would reach the distant fork F_1, which is "tuned" to the fork F, or stated otherwise, of exactly the

same note as the latter. The fork F_1 would now be set vibrating, and its vibration would be intensified by the continued action of the distant fork F until its upper prong, swinging far out, would make an electrical connection with a stationary contact c'', starting in this manner some electrical or other appliances which may be used for recording the signals. In this simple way messages could be exchanged between the two stations, a similar contact c' being provided for this purpose, close to the upper prong of the fork F, so that the apparatus at each station could be employed in turn as receiver and transmitter.

The electrical system illustrated in the upper figure of diagram *c* is exactly the same in principle, the two wires or circuits ESP and $E_1S_1P_1$, which extend vertically to a height, representing the two tuning-forks with the pistons attached to them. These circuits

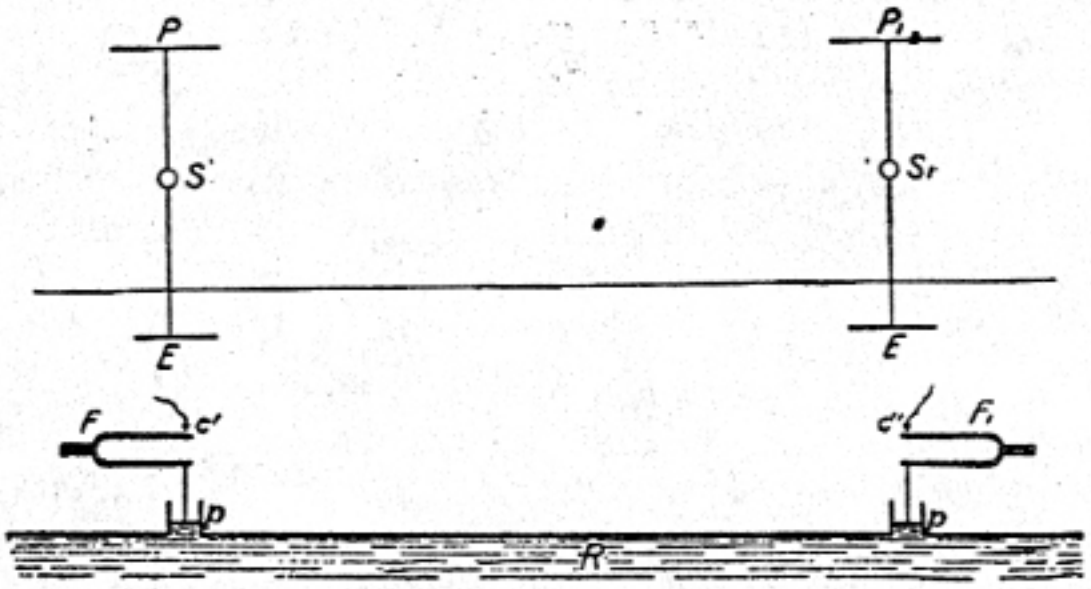


Diagram c. "WIRELESS" TELEGRAPHY MECHANICALLY ILLUSTRATED.

are connected with the ground by plates E, E_1, and to two elevated metal sheets P, P_1, which store electricity and thus magnify considerably the effect. The closed reservoir R, with elastic walls, is in this case replaced by the earth, and the fluid by electricity. Both of these circuits are "tuned" and operate just like the two tuning-forks. Instead of striking the fork F at the sending-station, electrical oscillations are produced in the vertical sending- or transmitting-wire ESP, as by the action of a source S, included in this wire, which spread through the ground and reach the distant vertical receiving-wire $E_1S_1P_1$, exciting corresponding electrical oscillations in the same. In the latter wire or circuit is included a sensitive device or receiver S_1, which is thus set in action and made to operate a relay or other appliance. Each station is, of course, provided both with a source of electrical oscillations S and a sensitive receiver S_1, and a simple provision is made for using each of the two wires alternately to send and to receive the messages.

The exact attunement of the two circuits secures great advantages, and, in fact, it is essential in the practical use of the system. In this respect many popular errors exist, and, as a rule, in the technical reports on this subject circuits and appliances are described as affording these advantages when from their very nature it is evident that this is impossible. In order to attain the best results it is essential that the length of each wire or circuit, from the ground connection to the top, should be equal to one quarter of the wave-length of the electrical vibration in the wire, or else equal to that length multiplied by an odd number. Without the observation of this rule it is virtually impossible to prevent the interference and insure the privacy of messages. Therein lies the secret of tuning. To obtain the most satisfactory results it is, however, necessary to resort to electrical vibrations of low pitch. The Hertzian spark apparatus, used generally by experimenters, which produces oscillations of a very high rate, permits no effective tuning, and slight disturbances are sufficient to render an exchange of messages impracticable. But scientifically designed, efficient appliances allow nearly perfect

adjustment. An experiment performed with the improved apparatus repeatedly referred to, and intended to convey an idea of this feature, is illustrated in Fig. 5, which is sufficiently explained by its note.

Since I described these simple principles of telegraphy without wires I have had frequent occasion to note that the identical features and elements have been used, in the evident belief that the signals are being transmitted to considerable distances by "Hertzian" radiations. This is only one of many misapprehensions to which the investigations of the lamented physicist have given rise. About thirty-three years ago Maxwell, following up a suggestive experiment made by Faraday in 1845, evolved an ideally simple theory which intimately connected light, radiant heat, and electrical phenomena, interpreting them as being all due to vibrations of a hypothetical fluid of inconceivable tenuity, called the ether. No experimental verification was arrived at until Hertz, at the suggestion of Helmholtz, undertook a series of experiments to this effect. Hertz proceeded with extraordinary ingenuity and insight, but devoted little energy to the perfection of his old-fashioned apparatus. The consequence was that he failed to observe the important function which the air played in his experiments, and which I subsequently discovered. Repeating his experiments and reaching different results, I ventured to point out this oversight. The strength of the proofs brought forward by Hertz in support of Maxwell's theory resided in the correct estimate of the rates of vibration of the circuits he used. But I ascertained that he could not have obtained the rates he thought he was getting. The vibrations with identical apparatus he employed are, as a rule, much slower, this being due to the presence of air, which produces a dampening effect upon a rapidly vibrating electric circuit of high pressure, as a fluid does upon a vibrating tuning-fork. I have, however, discovered since that time other causes of error, and I have long ago ceased to look upon his results as being an experimental verification of the poetical conceptions of Maxwell. The work of the great German physicist has acted as an immense stimulus to contemporary electrical research, but it has likewise, in a measure, by its fascination, paralyzed the scientific mind, and thus hampered independent inquiry. Every new phenomenon which was discovered was made to fit the theory, and so very often the truth has been unconsciously distorted.

When I advanced this system of telegraphy, my mind was dominated by the idea of effecting communication to any distance through the earth or environing medium, the practical consummation of which I considered of transcendent importance, chiefly on account of the moral effect which it could not fail to produce universally. As the first effort to this end I proposed, at that time, to employ relay-stations with tuned circuits, in the hope of making thus practicable signaling over vast distances, even with apparatus of very moderate power then at my command. I was confident, however, that with properly designed machinery signals could be transmitted to any point of the globe, no matter what the distance, without the necessity of using such intermediate stations. I gained this conviction through the discovery of a singular electrical phenomenon, which I described early in 1892, in lectures delivered before some scientific societies abroad, and which I have called a "rotating brush." This is a bundle of light which is formed, under certain conditions, in a vacuum-bulb, and which is of a sensitiveness to magnetic and electric influences bordering, so to speak, on the supernatural. This light-bundle is rapidly rotated by the earth's magnetism as many as twenty thousand times per second, the rotation in these parts being opposite to what it would be in the southern hemisphere, while in the region of the magnetic equator it should not rotate at all. In its most sensitive state, which is difficult to attain, it is responsive to electric or magnetic influences to an incredible degree. The mere stiffening of the muscles of the arm and consequent slight electrical change in the body of an observer standing at some distance from it, will perceptibly affect it. When in this highly sensitive state it is capable of indicating the slightest magnetic and electric

changes taking place in the earth. The observation of this wonderful phenomenon impressed me strongly that communication at any distance could be easily effected by its means, provided that apparatus could be perfected capable of producing an electric or magnetic change of state, however small, in the terrestrial globe or environing medium.

DEVELOPMENT OF A NEW PRINCIPLE — THE ELECTRICAL OSCILLATOR — PRODUCTION OF IMMENSE ELECTRICAL MOVEMENTS — THE EARTH RESPONDS TO MAN — INTERPLANETARY COMMUNICATION NOW PROBABLE

I resolved to concentrate my efforts upon this venturesome task, though it involved great sacrifice, for the difficulties to be mastered where such that I could hope to consummate it only after years of labor. It meant delay of other work to which I would have preferred to devote myself, but I gained the conviction that my energies could not be more usefully employed; for I recognized that an efficient apparatus for the production of powerful electrical oscillations, as was needed for that specific purpose, was the key to the solution of other most important electrical and, in fact, human problems. Not only was communication, to any distance, without wires possible by its means, but, likewise, the transmission of energy in great amounts, the burning of the atmospheric nitrogen, the production of an efficient illuminant, and many other results of inestimable scientific and industrial value. Finally, however, I had the satisfaction of accomplishing the task undertaken by the use of a new principle, the virtue of which is based on the marvelous properties of the electrical condenser. One of these is that it can discharge or explode its stored energy in an inconceivably short time. Owing to this it is unequaled in explosive violence. The explosion of dynamite is only the breath of a consumptive compared with its discharge. It is the means of producing the strongest current, the highest electrical pressure, the greatest commotion in the medium. Another of its properties, equally valuable, is that its discharge may vibrate at any rate desired up to many millions per second.

I had arrived at the limit of rates obtainable in other ways when the happy idea presented itself to me to resort to the condenser. I arranged such an instrument so as to be charged and discharged alternately in rapid succession through a coil with a few turns of stout wire, forming the primary of a transformer of induction-coil. Each time the condenser was discharged the current would quiver in the primary wire and induce corresponding oscillations in the secondary. Thus a transformer or induction-coil on new principles was evolved, which I have called "the electrical oscillator", partaking of those unique qualities which characterize the condenser, and enabling results to be attained impossible by other means. Electrical effects of any desired character and of intensities undreamed of before are now easily producible by perfected apparatus of this kind, to which frequent reference has been made, and the essential parts of which are shown in Fig. 6. For certain purposes a strong inductive effect is required; for others the greatest possible suddenness; for others again, an exceptionally high rate of vibration or extreme pressure; while for certain other objects immense electrical movements are necessary. The photographs in Figs. 7, 8, 9, and 10, of experiments performed with such an oscillator, may serve to illustrate some of these features and convey an idea of the magnitude of the effects actually produced. The completeness of the titles of the figures referred to makes a further description of them unnecessary.

However extraordinary the results shown may appear, they are but trifling compared with those which are attainable by apparatus designed on these same principles. I have produced electrical discharges the actual path of which, from end to end, was probably more than one hundred feet long; but it would not be difficult to reach lengths one

hundred times as great. I have produced electrical movements occurring at the rate of approximately one hundred thousand horse-power, but rates of one, five, or ten million horse-power are easily practicable. In these experiments effects were developed incomparably greater than any ever produced by human agencies, and yet these results are but an embryo of what is to be.

That communication without wires to any point of the globe is practicable with such apparatus would need no demonstration, but through a discovery which I made I obtained absolute certitude. Popularly explained, it is exactly this: When we raise the voice and hear an echo in reply, we know that the sound of the voice must have reached a distant wall, or boundary, and must have been reflected from the same. Exactly as the sound, so an electrical wave is reflected, and the same evidence which is afforded by an echo is offered by an electrical phenomenon known as a "stationary" wave — that is, a wave with fixed nodal and ventral regions. Instead of sending sound-vibrations toward a distant wall, I have sent electrical vibrations toward the remote boundaries of the earth, and instead of the wall the earth has replied. In place of an echo I have obtained a stationary electrical wave, a wave reflected from afar.

Stationary waves in the earth mean something more than mere telegraphy without wires to any distance. They will enable us to attain many important specific results impossible otherwise. For instance, by their use we may produce at will, from a sending-station, an electrical effect in any particular region of the globe; we may determine the relative position or course of a moving object, such as a vessel at sea, the distance traversed by the same, or its speed; or we may send over the earth a wave of electricity traveling at any rate we desire, from the pace of a turtle up to ligtning speed.

With these developments we have every reason to anticipate that in a time not very distant most telegraphic messages across the oceans will be transmitted without cables. For short distances we need a "wireless" telephone, which requires no expert operators. The greater the spaces to be bridged, the more rational becomes communication without wires. The cable is not only an easily damaged and costly instrument, but it limits us in the speed of transmission by reason of a certain electrical property inseparable from its construction. A properly designed plant for effecting communication without wires ought to have many times the working capacity of a cable, while it will involve incomparably less expense. Not a long time will pass, I believe, before communication by cable will become obsolete, for not only will signaling by this new method be quicker and cheaper, but also much safer. By using some new means for isolating the messages which I have contrived, an almost perfect privacy can be secured.

I have observed the above effects so far only up to a limited distance of about six hundred miles, but inasmuch as there is virtually no limit to the power of the vibrations producible with such an oscillator, I feel quite confident of the success of such a plant for effecting transoceanic communication. Nor is this all. My measurements and calculations have shown that it is perfectly practicable to produce on our globe, by the use of these principles, an electrical movement of such magnitude that, without the slightest doubt, its effect will be perceptible on some of our nearer planets, as Venus and Mars. Thus from mere possibility interplanetary communication has entered the stage of probability. In fact, that we can produce a distinct effect on one of these planets in this novel manner, namely, by disturbing the electrical condition of the earth, is beyond any doubt. This way of effecting such communication is, however, essentially different from all others which have so far been proposed by scientific men. In all the previous instances only a minute fraction of the total energy reaching the planet — as much as it would be possible to concentrate in a reflector — could be utilized by the supposed observer in his instrument. But by the means I have developed he would be enabled to concentrate the larger portion of the entire energy transmitted to

the planet in his instrument, and the chances of affecting the latter are thereby increased many millionfold.

Besides machinery for producing vibrations of the required power, we must have delicate means capable of revealing the effects of feeble influences exerted upon the earth. For such purposes, too, I have perfected new methods. By their use we shall likewise be able, among other things, to detect at considerable distance the presence of an iceberg or other object at sea. By their use, also, I have discovered some terrestrial phenomena still unexplained. That we can send a message to a planet is certain, that we can get an answer is probable: man is not the only being in the Infinite gifted with a mind.

TRANSMISSION OF ELECTRICAL ENERGY TO ANY DISTANCE WITHOUT WIRES — NOW PRACTICABLE — THE BEST MEANS OF INCREASING THE FORCE ACCELERATING THE HUMAN MASS

The most valuable observation made in the course of these investigations was the extraordinary behavior of the atmosphere toward electric impulses of excessive electromotive force. The experiments showed that the air at the ordinary pressure became distinctly conducting, and this opened up the wonderful prospect of transmitting large amounts of electrical energy for industrial purposes to great distances without wires, a possibility which, up to that time, was thought of only as a scientific dream. Further investigation revealed the important fact that the conductivity imparted to the air by these electrical impulses of many millions of volts increased very rapidly with the degree of rarefaction, so that air strata at very moderate altitudes, which are easily accessible, offer, to all experimental evidence, a perfect conducting path, better than a copper wire, for currents of this character.

Thus the discovery of these new properties of the atmosphere not only opened up the possibility of transmitting, without wires, energy in large amounts, but, what was still more significant, it afforded the certitude that energy could be transmitted in this manner economically. In this new system it matters little — in fact, almost nothing — whether the transmission is effected at a distance of a few miles or of a few thousand miles.

While I have not, as yet, actually effected a transmission of a considerable amount of energy, such as would be of industrial importance, to a great distance by this new method, I have operated several model plants under exactly the same conditions which will exist in a large plant of this kind, and the practicability of the system is thoroughly demonstrated. The experiments have shown conclusively that, with two terminals maintained at an elevation of not more than thirty thousand to thirty-five thousand feet above sea-level, and with an electrical pressure of fifteen to twenty million volts, the energy of thousands of horse-power can be transmitted over distances which may be hundreds and, if necessary, thousands of miles. I am hopeful, however, that I may be able to reduce very considerably the elevation of the terminals now required, and with this object I am following up an idea which promises such a realization. There is, of course, a popular prejudice against using an electrical pressure of millions of volts, which may cause sparks to fly at distances of hundreds of feet, but, paradoxical as it may seem, the system, as I have described it in a technical publication, offers greater personal safety than most of the ordinary distribution circuits now used in the cities. This is, in a measure, borne out by the fact that, although I have carried on such experiments for a number of years, no injury has been sustained either by me or any of my assistants.

But to enable a practical introduction of the system, a number of essential requirements are still to be fulfilled. It is not enough to develop appliances by means

of which such a transmission can be effected. The machinery must be such as to allow the transformation and transmission of electrical energy under highly economical and practical conditions. Furthermore, an inducement must be offered to those who are engaged in the industrial exploitation of natural sources of power, as waterfalls, by guaranteeing greater returns on the capital invested than they can secure by local development of the property.

From that moment when it was observed that, contrary to the established opinion, low and easily accessible strata of the atmosphere are capable of conducting electricity, the transmission of electrical energy without wires has become a rational task of the engineer, and one surpassing all others in importance. Its practical consummation would mean that energy would be available for the uses of man at any point of the globe, not in small amounts such as might be derived from the ambient medium by suitable machinery, but in quantities virtually unlimited, from waterfalls. Export of power would then become the chief source of income for many happily situated countries, as the United States, Canada, Central and South America, Switzerland, and Sweden. Men could settle down everywhere, fertilize and irrigate the soil with little effort, and convert barren deserts into gardens, and thus the entire globe could be transformed and made a fitter abode for mankind. It is highly probable that if there are intelligent beings on Mars they have long ago realized this very idea, which would explain the changes on its surface noted by astronomers. The atmosphere on that planet, being of considerably smaller density than that of the earth, would make the task much more easy.

It is probable that we shall soon have a self-acting heat-engine capable of deriving moderate amounts of energy from the ambient medium. There is also a possibility — though a small one — that we may obtain electrical energy direct from the sun. This might be the case if the Maxwellian theory is true, according to which electrical vibrations of all rates should emanate from the sun. I am still investigating this subject. Sir William Crookes has shown in his beautiful invention known as the "radiometer" that rays may produce by impact a mechanical effect, and this may lead to some important revelation as to the utilization of the sun's rays in novel ways. Other sources of energy may be opened up, and new methods of deriving energy from the sun discovered, but none of these or similar achievements would equal in importance the transmission of power to any distance through the medium. I can conceive of no technical advance which would tend to unite the various elements of humanity more effectively than this one, or of one which would more add to and more economize human energy. It would be the best means of increasing the force accelerating the human mass. The mere moral influence of such a radical departure would be incalculable. On the other hand, if at any point of the globe energy can be obtained in limited quantities from the ambient medium by means of a self-acting heat-engine or otherwise, the conditions will remain the same as before. Human performance will be increased, but men will remain strangers as they were.

I anticipate that many, unprepared for these results, which, through long familiarity, appear to me simple and obvious, will consider them still far from practical application. Such reserve, and even opposition, of some is as useful a quality and as necessary an element in human progress as the quick receptivity and enthusiasm of others. Thus, a mass which resists the force at first, once set in movement, adds to the energy. The scientific man does not aim at an immediate result. He does not expect that his advanced ideas will be readily taken up. His work is like that of the planter — for the future. His duty is to lay foundation for those who are to come, and point the way. He lives and labors and hopes with the poet who says:

Schaff', das Tagwerk meiner Hände,
Hohes Glück, dass ich's vollende!
Lass, o lass mich nicht ermatten!

. *Nein, es sind nicht leere Träume:*
Jetzt nur Stangen, diese Bäume
Geben eins noch Frucht und Schatten.[1]

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[1] *Daily work — my hands' employment,*
To complete is pure enjoyment!
Let, oh, let me never falter!
No! there is no empty dreaming:
Lo! these trees, but bare poles seeming,
Yet will yield both fruit and shelter!
Goethe's "Hope,"
(Translated by William Gibson)

THE TRANSMISSION OF ELECTRIC ENERGY WITHOUT WIRES*

Towards the close of 1898 a systematic research, carried on for a number of years with the object of perfecting a method of transmission of electrical energy through the natural medium, led me to recognize three important necessities; First, to develop a transmitter of great power; second, to perfect means for individualizing and isolating the energy transmitted; and, third, to ascertain the laws of propagation of currents through the earth and the atmosphere. Various reasons, not the least of which was the help proffered by my friend Leonard E. Curtis and the Colorado Springs Electric Company, determined me to select for my experimental investigations the large plateau, two thousand meters above sea-level, in the vicinity of that delightful resort, which I reached late in May, 1899. I had not been there but a few days when I congratulated myself on the happy choice and I began the task, for which I had long trained myself, with a grateful sense and full of inspiring hope. The perfect purity of the air, the unequaled beauty of the sky, the imposing sight of a high mountain range, the quiet and restfulness of the place — all around contributed to make the conditions for scientific observation ideal. To this was added the exhilarating influence of a glorious climate and a singular sharpening of the senses. In those regions the organs undergo perceptible physical changes. The eyes assume an extraordinary limpidity, improving vision; the ears dry out and become more susceptible to sound. Objects can be clearly distinguished there at distances such that I prefer to have them told by someone else, and I have heard — this I can venture to vouch for — the claps of thunder seven and eight hundred kilometers away. I might have done better still, had it not been tedious to wait for the sounds to arrive, in definite intervals, as heralded precisely by an electrical indicating apparatus — nearly an hour before.

In the middle of June, while preparations for other work were going on, I arranged one of my receiving transformers with the view of determining in a novel manner, experimentally, the electric potential of the globe and studying its periodic and casual fluctuations. This formed part of a plan carefully mapped out in advance. A highly sensitive, selfrestorative device, controlling a recording instrument, was included in the secondary circuit, while the primary was connected to the ground and an elevated terminal of adjustable capacity. The variations of potential gave rise to electric surgings in the primary; these generated secondary currents, which in turn affected the sensitive device and recorder in proportion to their intensity. The earth was found to be, literally, alive with electrical vibrations, and soon I was deeply absorbed in this interesting investigation. No better opportunities for such observations as I intended to make could be found anywhere. Colorado is a country famous for the natural displays of electric force. In that dry and rarefied atmosphere the sun's rays beat the objects with fierce intensity. I raised steam, to a dangerous pressure, in barrels filled with concentrated

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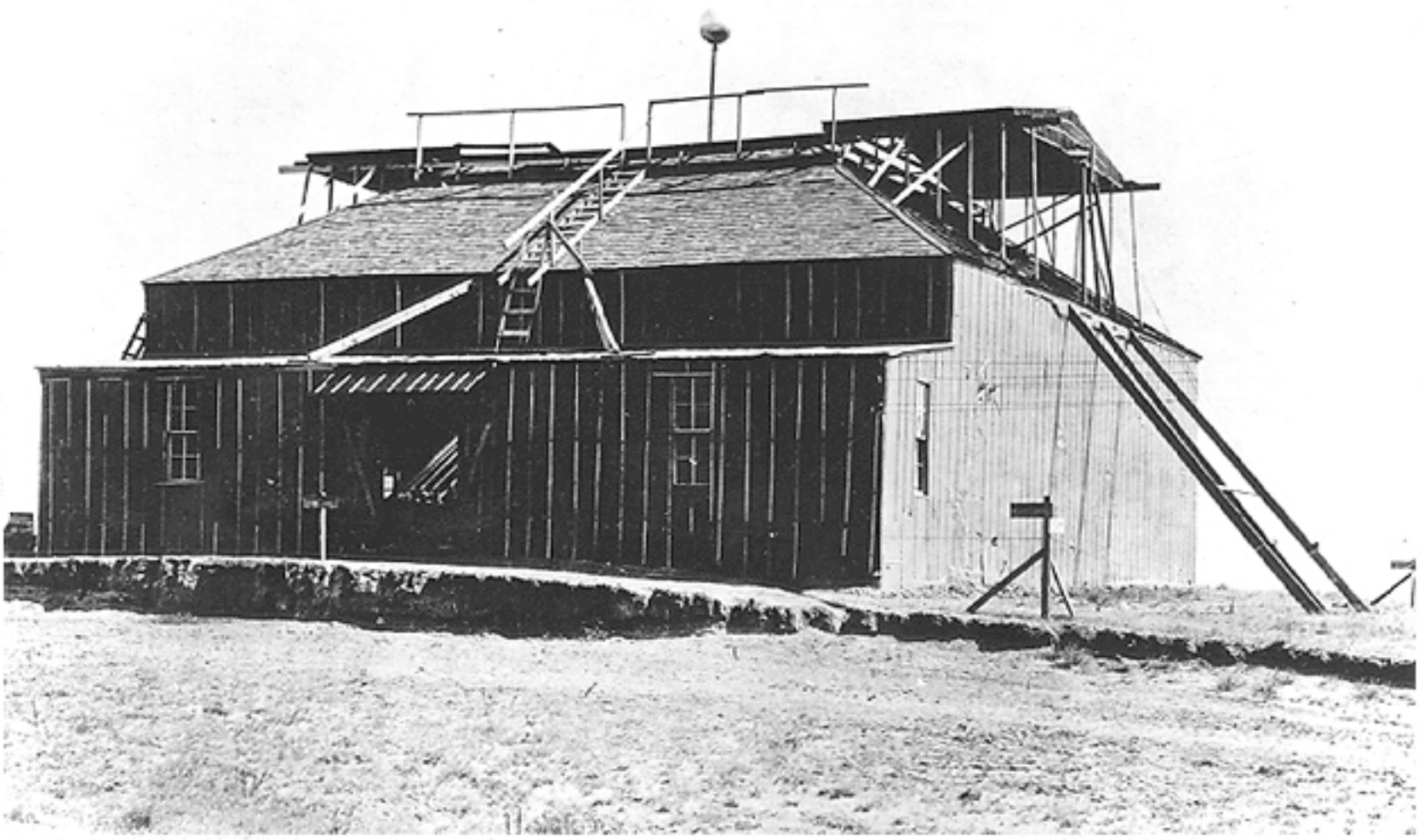
* The Electrical World and Engineer, March 5, 1904.

salt solution, and the tin-foil coatings of some of my elevated terminals shriveled up in the fiery blaze. An experimental high-tension transformer, carelessly exposed to the rays of the setting sun, had most of its insulating compound melted out and was rendered useless. Aided by the dryness and rarefaction of the air, the water evaporates as in a boiler, and static electricity is developed in abundance. Lightning discharges are, accordingly, very frequent and sometimes of inconceivable violence. On one occasion approximately twelve thousand discharges occurred in two hours, and all in a radius of certainly less than fifty kilometers from the laboratory. Many of them resembled gigantic trees of fire with the trunks up or down. I never saw fire balls, but as a compensation for my disappointment I succeeded later in determining the mode of their formation and producing them artificially.



Experimental Laboratory, Colorado Springs.

In the latter part of the same month I noticed several times that my instruments were affected stronger by discharges taking place at great distances than by those near by. This puzzled me very much. What was the cause? A number of observations proved that it could not be due to the differences in the intensity of the individual discharges, and I readily ascertained that the phenomenon was not the result of a varying relation between the periods of my receiving circuits and those of the terrestrial disturbances. One night, as I was walking home with an assistant, meditating over these experiences, I was suddenly staggered by a thought. Years ago, when I wrote a chapter of my lecture before the Franklin Institute and the National Electric Light Association, it had presented itself to me, but I had dismissed it as absurd and impossible. I banished it again. Nevertheless, my instinct was aroused and somehow I felt that I was nearing a great revelation.

It was on the third of July — the date I shall never forget — when I obtained the first decisive experimental evidence of a truth of overwhelming importance for the

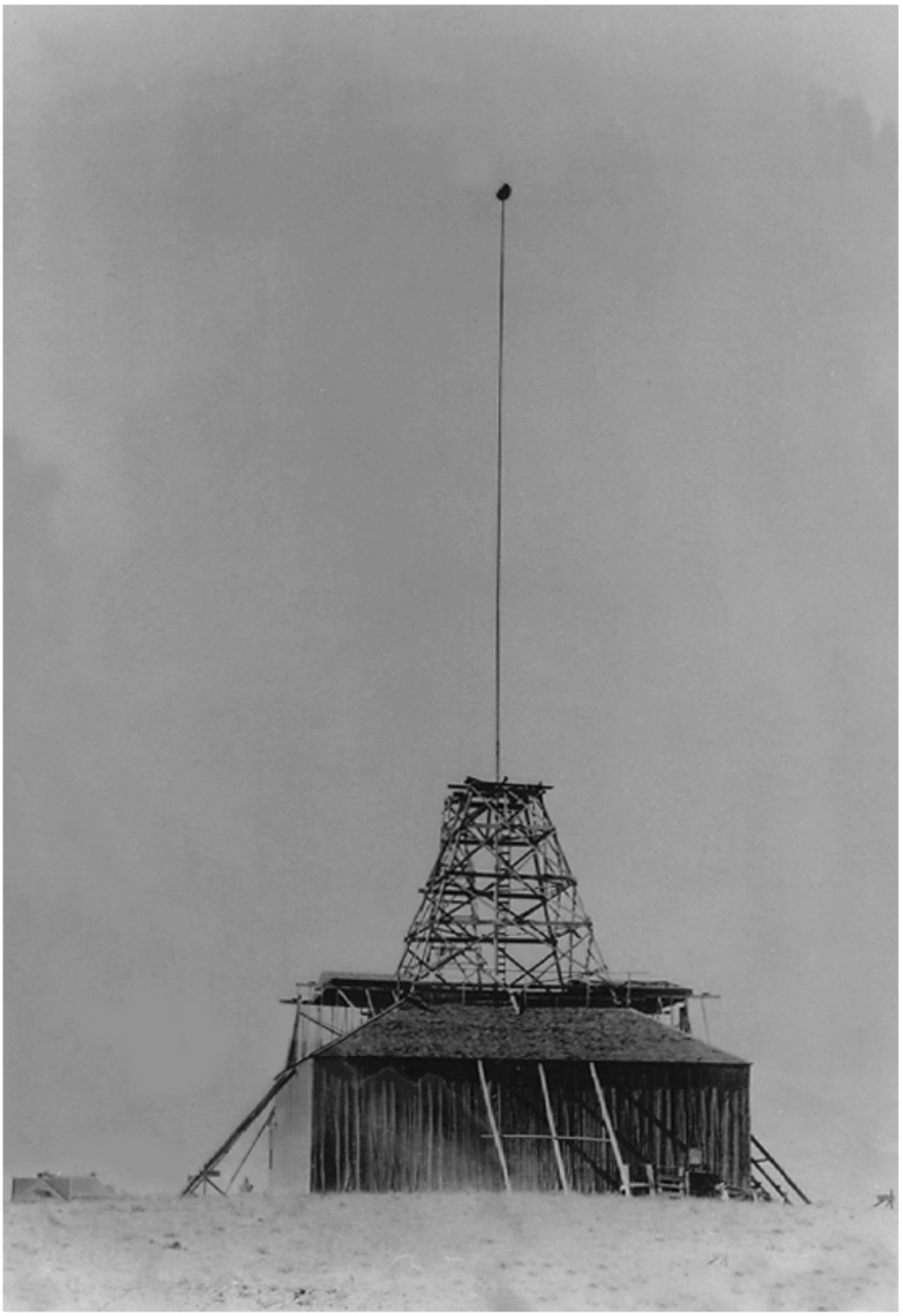
Central Power Plant and Transmitting Tower for "World Telegraphy",
Long Island, N. Y.

advancement of humanity. A dense mass of strongly charged clouds gathered in the west and towards the evening a violent storm broke loose which, after spending much of its fury in the mountains, was driven away with great velocity over the plains. Heavy and long persisting arcs formed almost in regular time intervals. My observations were now greatly facilitated and rendered more accurate by the experiences already gained. I was able to handle my instruments quickly and I was prepared. The recording apparatus being properly adjusted, its indications became fainter and fainter with the increasing distance of the storm, until they ceased altogether. I was watching in eager expectation. Surely enough, in a little while the indications again began, grew stronger and stronger and, after passing through a maximum, gradually decreased and ceased once more. Many times, in regularly recurring intervals, the same actions were repeated until the storm which, as evident from simple computations, was moving with nearly constant speed, had retreated to a distance of about three hundred kilometers. Nor did these strange actions stop then, but continued to manifest themselves with undiminished force. Subsequently, similar observations were also made by my assistant, Mr. Fritz Lowenstein, and shortly afterward several admirable opportunities presented themselves which brought out, still more forcibly, and unmistakably, the true nature of the wonderful phenomenon. No doubt whatever remained: I was observing stationary waves.

As the source of disturbances moved away the receiving circuit came successively upon their nodes and loops. Impossible as it seemed, this planet, despite its vast extent, behaved like a conductor of limited dimensions. The tremendous significance of this fact in the transmission of energy by my system had already become quite clear to me. Not only was it practicable to send telegraphic messages to any distance without wires, as I recognized long ago, but also to impress upon the entire globe the faint modulations of the human voice, far more still, to transmit power, in unlimited amounts, to any terrestrial distance and almost without any loss.

With these stupendous possibilities in sight, with the experimental evidence before me that their realization was henceforth merely a question of expert knowledge, patience and skill, I attacked vigorously the development of my magnifying transmitter, now, however, not so much with the original intention of producing one of great power, as with the object of learning how to construct the best one. This is, essentially, a circuit of very high self-induction and small resistance which in its arrangement, mode of excitation and action, may be said to be the diametrical opposite of a transmitting circuit typical of telegraphy by Hertzian or electromagnetic radiations. It is difficult to form an adequate idea of the marvelous power of this unique appliance, by the aid of which the globe will be transformed. The electromagnetic radiations being reduced to an insignificant quantity, and proper conditions of resonance maintained, the circuit acts like an immense pendulum, storing indefinitely the energy of the primary exciting impulses and impressions upon the earth and its conducting atmosphere uniform harmonic oscillations of intensities which, as actual tests have shown, may be pushed so far as to surpass those attained in the natural displays of static electricity.

Simultaneously with these endeavors, the means of individualization and isolation were gradually improved. Great importance was attached to this, for it was found that simple tuning was not sufficient to meet the vigorous practical requirements. The fundamental idea of employing a number of distinctive elements, co-operatively associated, for the purpose of isolating energy transmitted, I trace directly to my perusal of Spencer's clear and suggestive exposition of the human nerve mechanism. The influence of this principle on the transmission of intelligence, and electrical energy in general, cannot as yet be estimated, for the art is still in the embryonic stage; but many thousands of simultaneous telegraphic and telephonic messages, through one single conducting channel, natural or artificial, and without serious mutual interference, are certainly practicable, while millions are possible. On the other hand, any desired degree of individualization may be secured by the use of a great number of co-operative



Experimental Laboratory, Colorado Springs.

elements and arbitrary variation of their distinctive features and order of succession. For obvious reasons, the principle will also be valuable in the extension of the distance of transmission.

Progress though of necessity slow was steady and sure, for the objects aimed at were in a direction of my constant study and exercise. It is, therefore, not astonishing that before the end of 1899 I completed the task undertaken and reached the results which I have announced in my article in the *Century Magazine* of June, 1900, every word of which was carefully weighed.

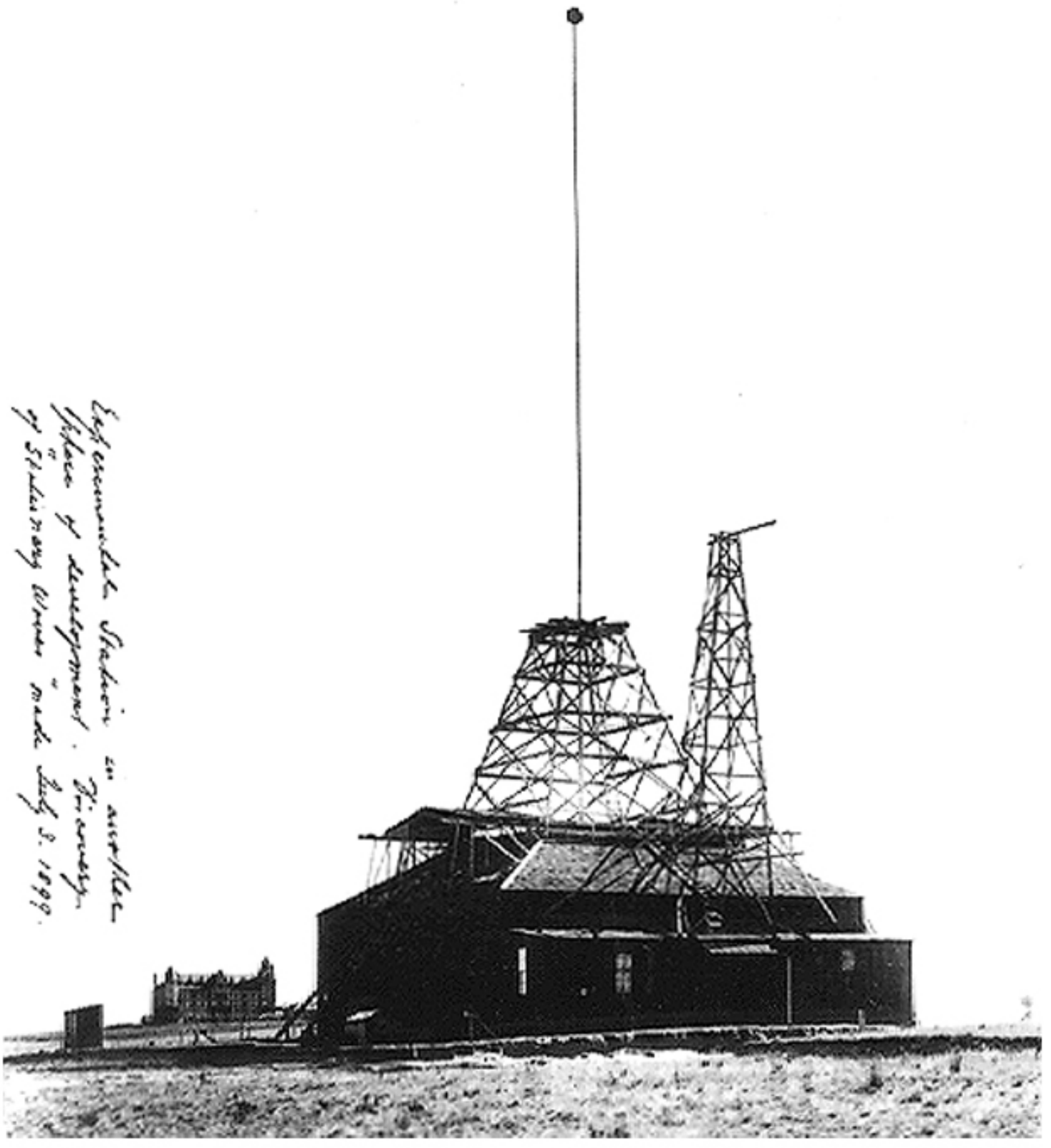
Much has already been done towards making my system commercially available, in the transmission of energy in small amounts for specific purposes, as well as on an industrial scale. The results attained by me have made my scheme of intelligence transmission, for which the name of "World Telegraphy" has been suggested, easily realizable. It constitutes, I believe, in its principle of operation, means employed and capacities of application, a radical and fruitful departure from what has been done heretofore. I have no doubt that it will prove very efficient in enlightening the masses, particularly in still uncivilized countries and less accessible regions, and that it will add materially to general safety, comfort and convenience, and maintenance of peaceful relations. It involves the employment of a number of plants, all of which are capable of transmitting individualized signals to the uttermost confines of the earth. Each of them will be preferably located near some important center of civilization and the news it receives through any channel will be flashed to all points of the globe. A cheap and simple device, which might be carried in one's pocket, may then be set up somewhere on sea or land, and it will record the world's news or such special messages as may be intended for it. Thus the entire earth will be converted into a huge brain, as it were, capable of response in every one of its parts. Since a single plant of but one hundred horse-power can operate hundreds of millions of instruments, the system will have a virtually infinite working capacity, and it must needs immensely facilitate and cheapen the transmission of intelligence.

The first of these central plants would have been already completed had it not been for unforeseen delays which, fortunately, have nothing to do with its purely technical features. But this loss of time, while vexatious, may, after all, prove to be a blessing in disguise. The best design of which I knew has been adopted, and the transmitter will emit a wave complex of a total maximum activity of ten million horse-power, one per cent. of which is amply sufficient to "girdle the globe". This enormous rate of energy delivery, approximately twice that of the combined falls of Niagara, is obtainable only by the use of certain artifices, which I shall make known in due course.

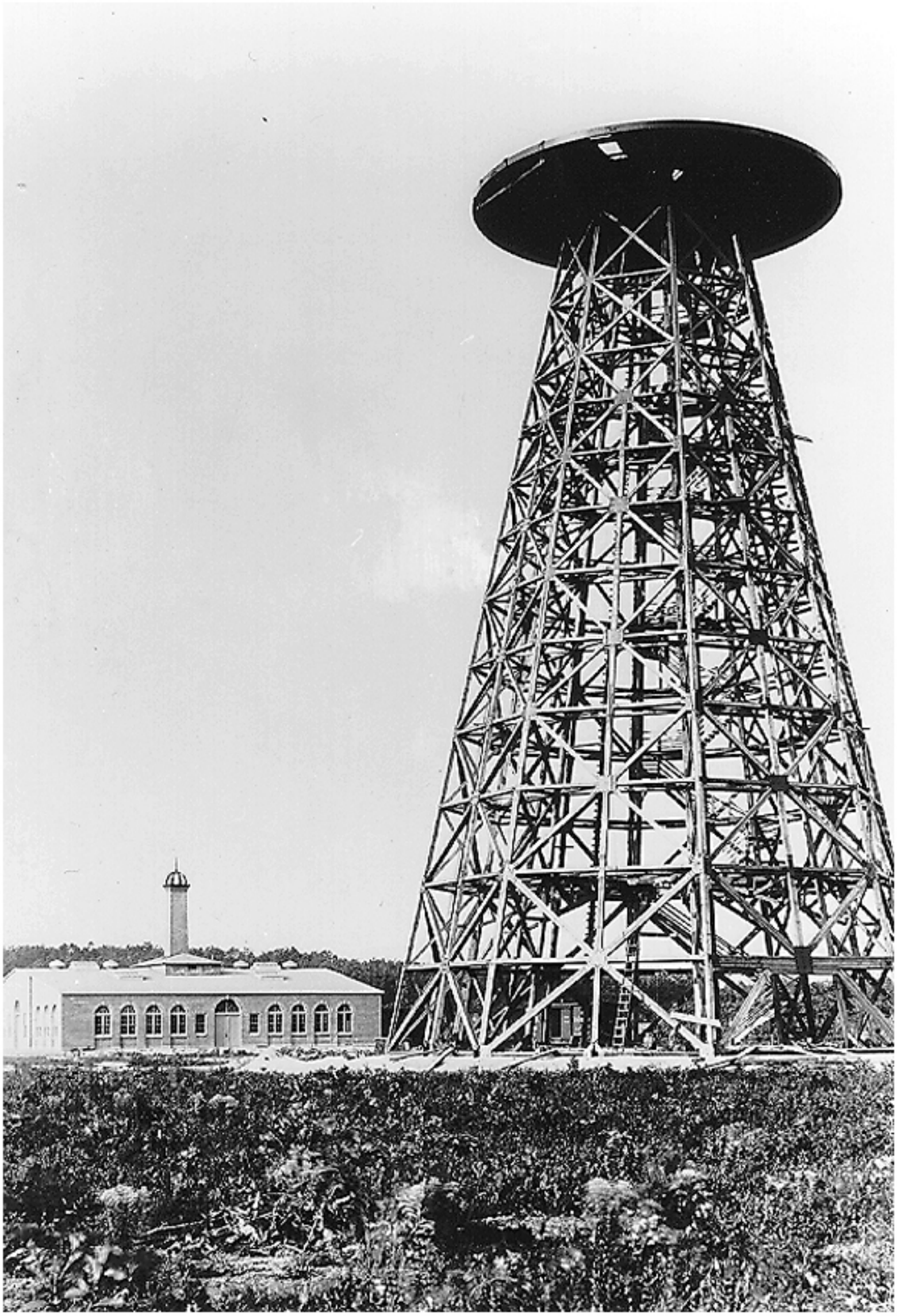
For a large part of the work which I have done so far I am indebted to the noble generosity of Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan, which was all the more welcome and stimulating, as it was extended at a time when those, who have since promised most, were the greatest of doubters. I have also to thank my friend, Stanford White, for much unselfish and valuable assistance. This work is now far advanced, and though the results may be tardy, they are sure to come.

Meanwhile, the transmission of energy on an industrial scale is not being neglected. The Canadian Niagara Power Company have offered me a splendid inducement, and next to achieving success for the sake of the art, it will give me the greatest satisfaction to make their concession financially profitable to them. In this first power plant, which I have been designing for a long time, I propose to distribute ten thousand horse-power under a tension of one hundred million volts, which I am now able to produce and handle with safety.

This energy will be collected all over the globe preferably in small amounts, ranging from a fraction of one to a few horse-power. One of its chief uses will be the illumination of isolated homes. It takes very little power to light a dwelling with



Experimental Laboratory, Colorado, erected Summer of 1899.



Central Power Plant, Transmitting Tower, and Laboratory for "World Telegraphy," Warderclyffe, Long Island.

vacuum tubes operated by high-frequency currents and in each instance a terminal a little above the roof will be sufficient. Another valuable application will be the driving of clocks and other such apparatus. These clocks will be exceedingly simple, will require absolutely no attention and will indicate rigorously correct time. The idea of impressing upon the earth American time is fascinating and very likely to become popular. There are innumerable devices of all kinds which are either now employed or can be supplied, and by operating them in this manner I may be able to offer a great convenience to the whole world with a plant of no more than ten thousand horse-power. The introduction of this system will give opportunities for invention and manufacture such as have never presented themselves before.

Knowing the far-reaching importance of this first attempt and its effect upon future development, I shall proceed slowly and carefully. Experience has taught me not to assign a term to enterprises the consummation of which is not wholly dependent on my own abilities and exertions. But I am hopeful that these great realizations are not far off, and I know that when this first work is completed they will follow with mathematical certitude.

When the great truth accidentally revealed and experimentally confirmed is fully recognized, that this planet, with all its appalling immensity, is to electric currents virtually no more than a small metal ball and that by this fact many possibilities, each baffling imagination and of incalculable consequence, are rendered absolutely sure of accomplishment; when the first plant is inaugurated and it is shown that a telegraphic message, almost as secret and non-interferable as a thought, can be transmitted to any terrestrial distance, the sound of the human voice, with all its intonations and inflections, faithfully and instantly reproduced at any other point of the globe, the energy of a waterfall made available for supplying light, heat or motive power, anywhere — on sea, or land, or high in the air — humanity will be like an ant heap stirred up with a stick: See the excitement coming!

SCIENCE AND DISCOVERY ARE THE GREAT FORCES WHICH WILL LEAD TO THE CONSUMMATION OF THE WAR*

Whatever future ages may have in store for the human race, the development so far would indicate as its probable fate perpetual strife. Civilization alone is evidently insufficient for insuring permanent peace on earth. It but retards the clash to add to its intensity and magnitude, making it all the more dreadful and ruinous.

The present colossal struggle creates an impression apart, a feeling of awe, a sense of solemnity, springing from the knowledge that a terrible calamity, greater than any recorded in the annals of history, has befallen the world. Suddenly awakened from fancied security to the consciousness of insuspected and universal danger, the nations stand aghast. It is as if some vast terrestrial upheaval were taking place, as if gigantic forces were unchained, threatening the entire globe.

Never before were such immense armies engaged in battle and such frightfully destructive implements employed; never was so much dependent on a victory of arms. Already the losses incurred amount to tens of billions of dollars; more than three million men have been killed and disabled, and for each of these ten, at least, have been turned into nervous wrecks, which will impress their miseries on the succeeding generations and darken their days. All the world over countless sufferers, torn by anxiety, ask themselves how long is this appalling slaughter and sacrilegious waste to continue.

War is essentially a manifestation of energy involving the acceleration and retardation of a mass by a force. In such a case it is a universally established truth that the time necessary to impart a given velocity and momentum is proportionate to the mass. The same law also applies to the annihilation of velocity and momentum by a resisting force. Translated in popular language this means that the period or duration of an armed conflict is theoretically proportionate to the magnitude of the armies or number of combatants.

It is obviously assumed that the resources are ample and all other conditions equal. Furthermore, in making deductions from previous wars a number of factors have to be taken into consideration and all quantities estimated at their proper value on the basis of statistical and other data. Supposing that, as it appears, 12,000,000 men are engaged in the present struggle, a comparison with some of the past wars gives the following results:

Wars	Number of Combatants	Duration Y.	Duration M.	Remarks
Civil war	4,600.000	4	..	Protracted by distance, poor communication and ineffective arms.
Present war	12,000.000	10		
Franco-German war	1,700.000	..	13	Equipment not quite modern.
Present war	12,000.000	7	6	

* The Sun, Dec. 20, 1914. ("Nikola Tesla looks to Science to end the War")

Russo-Japanese war	2,200.000	1	6	Lengthened by distance, poor communication and nature of campaign.
Present war	12,000.000	8		
First Balkan war	1,200.000		6	In all respects up to date.
Present war	12,000.000	5		
Hypothetical average war	2,425.000	1	9	Various causes affecting duration.
Present war	12,000.000	8	6	

Much more concordant and shorter terms would be obtained in these comparative estimates if the records available were corrected as indicated and due allowances made for the facilities of transport and communication, increased power and destructiveness of arms and other factors tending to magnify the rate at which energy is delivered, and so to hasten the termination of the clash. The best inference is certainly that drawn from the Balkan war, as the most modern, according to which the term should be five years. Even though this be but a rough approximation, it is sufficient to show that, barring some extraordinary development, this war will be a long one.

Indeed, it seems on purely scientific grounds that a conflict on such a vast scale can only be ended by exhaustion. The enormous extent of the battle front, owing to numbers and attendant impossibility of striking a decisive blow, is in further support of this theory. It is also highly significant to observe in this connection how the original battle lines, determined in advance by strategy, have been gradually shifted and straightened, contact between the fighting masses being finally established on lines fixed by natural law and brute force of push in defiance of military design. The likelihood of such termination is increased by the fact that the disturbance extends over an immense area, making the supply of necessities to some of the affected regions exceptionally difficult.

Accepting, then, this theory as correct, we are justified in expecting that, conditions remaining normal, the struggle will last more or less according to the form the exhaustion may take. Lack of food, deterioration and shortage of equipment, want of metals, chemicals and ammunition, scarcity of ready capital, failing supply of trained men or sheer giving out of human energy are some of the elements to be reckoned with, any one of which may compel an early cessation of hostilities. That the war cannot be continued much longer with its present intensity can be easily shown.

The daily cost of operation is more than forty millions of dollars, and judging from the casualties recorded to date, twenty-five thousand men, on the average, are killed and disabled in battle every day. At that rate only four more months of active campaign would result in an expenditure of five billions of dollars and a loss of life of three millions of men. This is, manifestly, too great an additional burden to be borne, for even though the fighting material might be available, capital is sure to be lacking. It could be, therefore, concluded with certitude that peace would be restored before next winter, were it not for one possibility, or rather probability, that of a deadlock, which would be the very worst calamity, for, in view of the real cause of the trouble and the temper of nations involved, it could not fail to protract the war for years.

Prophesying is an ungrateful occupation, but scientific forecasting is a useful form of endeavor and would be much more such if human nature were not so prone to leave advice and lesson unheeded. Having made a careful study of the situation, an expert can predict certain happenings with perfect confidence. There are now only three possible issues of this war: first, collapse of Austria; second, conquest of England by the Germans, and, third, Germany's exhaustion and defeat.

The fall of Austria is inevitable and must occur within the next few months. She may defy German influence and sue independently for peace to save herself, but it is

doubtful that she could offer anything acceptable to the Allies. Much more likely it is that the old Emperor, tired of life and recognizing the injustice of Austria's cause, will himself abdicate and recommend partition.

This may not be unwelcome to hard pressed Germany, for it will open up a way of making peace on terms which will not be humiliating and compensate her for the probable loss of Alsace-Lorraine and East Prussia.

The dual monarchy has maintained herself through decades as if by a wonder. It would have been dissolved long ago had it not been for the stubborn adherence of Hungarian magnates to a promise given to Maria Theresa and the extraordinary popularity of the reigning dynasty, largely due to compassion of the subjects of all nationalities aroused by the many strange misfortunes which have befallen the house of Hapsburg. It is well recognized that the unnatural existence of this feudal state has been a constant menace to European peace and is the chief cause of the present upheaval. A division of Austro-Hungarian territory along racial lines will satisfy all warring nations on the European continent. This is sure to come. It is a process natural and unavoidable as the falling of an overripe apple from the tree.

Regarding the second possibility, it is still unsafe to make a prediction and further developments must be awaited before a conclusion can be drawn as to the outcome. There are many indications that Germany is preparing for an attack on England with all energy and speed, and perhaps her operations in the east and west serve the purpose of masking this move. The tension between the two countries is very great, the causes of the quarrel peculiar and a peaceful solution of the difficulty is next to impossible.

The third of the issues mentioned would mean a very long war. Germany cannot break through the steel wall in France and Belgium; her partial victories in Poland can make no impression on the Russian masses. Gradually she must settle on a defensive. She has the greatest load to carry and must give out first, according to financiers and statisticians.

But with a people so intelligent, industrious, resourceful and solidly united such forecasts are hazardous. The Germans are fully capable of "making two blades of grass grow where one grew before" and it is precisely because of this and their perfect military organization that the danger of a long conflict exists. Such a prospect is enough to cause the gravest apprehensions and the uppermost thought in the minds of seers is how to prevent such paralysis of progress and horrible carnage and waste. Can it be done?

There is a grim determination of all directly concerned to fight the issues to the bitter end on the ground that a premature peace, leaving the vital questions unsettled, would only mean the continuance of the existing pernicious regime and repetition of the evil. A new and irresistible argument must be brought forward to stop the conflict. The case is desperate, but there is a hope. This hope lies in science, discovery and invention.

Modern machinery wrought by science is responsible for this calamity; science will also undo the Frankenstein monster it has created. Centuries ago an ingenious contrivance of Archimedes is said to have decided a battle and terminated a great war. Be it a myth or a fact, this story affords an inspiring lesson. What is needed at this psychological moment is some such revelation. A new force, a new agent, a demonstration by any means, old or novel, but of a kind to surprise and suddenly illuminate, to bring the belligerents to their senses and furnish irrefutable proof of the folly and uselessness of carrying on the brutal fight.

This idea, to which I have myself devoted years of work, has now taken hold of scientific men and experts all the world over. Thousands of inventors, fired on by this unique opportunity, are bent upon developing some process or apparatus for accomplishing the purpose, and there is feverish activity in France, Russia, and especially in Germany, among electricians, chemists and engineers. What the genius of nations will

bring forth none can tell, but it is not too much to say that the results will be of such character as materially to affect the outcome and duration of the struggle.

It is on this account that importance attaches to vague reports of mysterious experiments with Zeppelins, explosive rays and magic bombs, for though such news items cannot be accepted as true, they reveal just so many startling possibilities. In the production and application of novel means of warfare Germany should be first, no only by reason of superior facilities and excellent training of her experts, but because this has become a dire necessity, a question of life and death in her present trying position.

The uncertain and often conflicting despatches of the daily happenings received from various sources have made it difficult to form a decided opinion as to the actual state of things, but in spite of rigid censorship the main facts have gradually transpired. One of these is that the Germans were the only people ready for war.

Not even the French, who boasted of preparedness, were able to mobilize on time. The invasion of East Prussia was but a daring stroke of the Russians to draw the enemy and relieve the pressure on France, successful but very costly to them. As to the complacent Britons, they were fast asleep. Whatever may be said against Great Britain, her utter unreadiness and the great danger to which she was exposing herself by her ultimatum to Germany would seem to be proof positive that she did not desire to enter the conflict.

Another fact, equally apparent, is that Germany, not content with a partial, even if certain, victory, had determined to defeat all the Allies in quick succession. Her plan of dictating terms of peace first in Paris, then in Petrograd, and finally in London, was not adopted as a military necessity, but as a deliberate programme based on the absolute confidence in the overwhelming power of her arms. Nor did she mean to stop at that. Her aim was much higher; she wanted nothing less than to rule all nations.

This is now frankly admitted by many of her leading men. To most of us such an undertaking is dumfounding in its boldness and magnitude, all the more as it is intended to be carried through by force. But it would be a mistake to accuse the Germans of conceit and arrogance. They are convinced of their superiority, and it must be admitted that there is some justification for their attempt.

The question has often been raised as to whether our further development will be in the direction of the artistic and beautiful or the scientific and useful. The inevitable conclusion is that art must be sacrificed to science. This being so, the rational Germans represent the nearest approach of the humanity of the future. The Slavs, who are in the ascendency and will lead in their turn, will give a fresh impetus to creative and spiritual effort, but they too will have to concentrate on the necessary and practical. A world of bees will be the ultimate result.

Germany has been foiled in her attempt. Though still undefeated, her campaign is a failure. Many statements have been made in explanation of the sudden halt of her victorious armies, as if by a miracle, at the very gates of Paris, but the views expressed are of speculative character and do not deal with the real physical causes. These may be briefly elucidated.

The German war machine is an attempt to substitute for an assemblage of loosely linked temperamental and problematical units a compact and apathetic mass moving at command with clock precision, machinelike, impassive, indifferent to danger and death, in battle the same as on parade. Its conception rests on a deeply scientific foundation. Every human being is swayed by courage and fear, but the former predominates. This is evident, for life or existence itself is a struggle fraught with perils and pains which must be met with determination and fortitude. Fear comes from the consciousness of inimical environment and is accentuated by isolation.

When many men are placed close together the friendly surrounding and sense of connectedness are productive of a distinct psychological mass effect, calming the nerves and subduing the inborn dread and apprehension. On the other hand, frequent and severe drilling kept up for years, besides being conducive to precision and synchrony of movements, is of decided hypnotic influence, still further eliminating individual initiative and incertitude. Thus results a strong and healthy body which moves and acts as a unit, which is without human failings and shortcomings and capable of maximum performance through well directed and simultaneous application of separate efforts.

Such is the formidable engine Germany has perfected for the protection of her Kultur and conquest of the globe — an unfeeling automaton, a diabolical contrivance for scientific, pitiless, wholesale destruction the like of which was not dreamed of before. It is believed to express the highest efficiency, but is deceptive in this respect, to none more than the Germans themselves. In reality this modern war machine, considered as a transformer of energy, is barbarously wasteful.

Not only does it call for enormous expenditure of money and effort when idle, but involves a fundamental fallacy which military writers ignore, namely, the conditions determining its performance, and therefore its efficiency, are largely, if not wholly, controlled by the enemy. Indeed, it is lack of appreciation of this truth that is responsible for the Paris failure.

The first of the two chief causes of German unsuccess is found in the admirable defensive tactics of the French, who refused to make a stand for a decisive battle, thus preventing the German machine from developing its full power and compelling it to work at low efficiency. The second, even more important, was the result of undue hurry of the Germans, who drove their engine too fast, thereby increasing greatly the losses without adequate gain in useful performance. Had they taken more time, which, as subsequent developments have shown, they could have well afforded, there would have been more energy conserved and the task in all probability successfully accomplished.

The most surprising of the facts which have transpired is that there have been made in diplomatic transaction and conduct of the German campaign a number of grievous mistakes, so patent now that no representations of the press can disguise them. This is a revelation for which the world was least prepared and which shows clearly that German erudition and technical proficiency have been obtained at the expense of intuition, tact and good judgment.

What a blunder was the violation of Belgian neutrality, what an error the expectation that England would tolerate an encroachment so dangerous to her existence, that Italy would sacrifice her fleet and commerce to please the alliance! The Germans had wonderful guns, rendering fortifications useless, and yet in attacking France, instead of the shortest route, they took a circuitous path through Belgium, thus losing time and conjuring new perils and complications besides. Tens of thousands of men were driven into certain death in vain assaults in mass formation when a few shots from these guns would have been sufficient to level the forts.

Troops were withdrawn from France to less important points at the very moment when their presence meant certain victory. The Germans could have marched on Warsaw and Petrograd before the enemy was ready to put up an effective resistance, yet they delayed the invasion until the Russians brought up their millions. They could have taken Dunkirk and Calais without great effort and so avoided the terrible losses which this task, if at all realizable, must now involve. At present they are recklessly venturing far into Russian teritory against overwhelming numbers and in a season when snow-storms may cut the communications and put the whole army at the mercy of the enemy.

What explanation can be offered for these and other singular errors of a nation to which economy is religion, which is admittedly the first in achieving successes in the most scientific manner, along lines of least resistance? Only one reason can be given and it is one which has caused the downfall of many an empire! It is overconfidence and contemptuous disregard of the adversaries.

Germany began the war with a blind faith in an offensive which knows no opposition. She has learned, after a frightful and unnecessary sacrifice of life and property, that France can be strong without Napoleon, that the rights of liberty loving nations, as the Belgian and Servian, cannot be trampled upon with impunity, that Russia is no longer the clumsy and helpless beast of the north. She has finally recognized what she should have known from the first, that England is her most dangerous enemy. She might maintain herself against the armies of the Continent, but with Great Britain shutting her off from the sea and strangling her by degrees the task is rendered impossible.

Victory over the Allies in the west, if at all obtainable, would weaken her to the point of danger; in the East the situation is becoming more hopeless every hour. Germany is losing ten thousand men and spending seventy-five millions of marks a day. Her life blood is ebbing fast; in the end she must lose. The only way to win is to crush England. In doing this she frees herself from the deadly grip at her throat and triumphs over all her enemies.

The Fatherland is now aflame with this thought and has started, with energy never shown before, a new campaign which if undertaken four months ago might have terminated the war before it was fairly under way. Germany enters this mortal combat not with the cold deliberation of a military power but with the passionate resolve of a nation animated by that one desire. She depends for success not only on her generals but on her physicists, engineers, inventors, chemists and artisans and on her volunteers who will offer themselves as martyrs for her cause.

She may make raids and demonstrations to trap the enemy, but she does not have the remotest intention to engage the British fleet in open battle. What she proposes to do is to destroy it by hellish means and artifices without losing a single ship of her own. Unless England wakes up immediately to this grave danger and prepares to meet science with science, skill with skill and sacrifice with sacrifice, the next few months may be critical for her reign as mistress of the seas. That the rules set down at The Hague are ineffective in preventing the use of infernal devices has been already shown. International agreements are of two kinds and may be classified under two captions, which are: "United we stand, divided we fall" and "Circumstances alter cases." The provisions of The Hague are of the latter kind.

Those who would brush aside the above suggestion as highly improbable if not preposterous should bear in mind that a great nation leading in technical achievement is making a fight for its existence and that invention has already provided means by which such destruction can be accomplished, while others are foreshadowed in scientific investigations of recent years. The question that will interest everybody is what methods and contrivances is Germany likely to employ in her cunning undertaking and how can her efforts be met and frustrated?

In her attack upon England four ways are open to Germany: First, forceful invasion in disregard of the British fleet; second, engagement with the fleet in open battle; third, gradual destruction and weakening of the fleet by devices other than guns, and fourth, aerial attacks on land and sea.

History is full of daring conquests. It may be that we are to witness the most remarkable of all. The British Isles have been invaded before, but it was in times of primitive arms. The means of defence have been brought to great perfection, it is true,

but this is largely offset by correspondingly increased powers of offensive. The feat is difficult but not impossible.

Strategy, however, can play no important part in its consummation. It is a case of Hannibal crossing the Alps, a problem of overcoming natural barriers. England has a small coast line on which landing can be effected and many places are likely to be well guarded and fortified. If the Germans contemplate invasion it will come like a lightning stroke. They will attempt it in broad daylight and in their favored manner of hacking through the obstacles regardless of loss. Their frantic efforts to get control of the coast would seem to indicate that such is their intention.

Many experts are of the opinion that so long as there is a superior British fleet in existence an undertaking of this nature is wholly out of the question, but this is a mistake. It is certainly possible for the Germans to establish an operating zone in the Channel, protected on the sides by impenetrable mine fields and submarines. What is more, the possession of Calais, while it would be of great advantage to them, is not absolutely necessary to their purpose.

Whatever the plan, it will be a piece of engineering worked out in all details with German thoroughness. That is the reason why no credence can be placed in the flimsy proposals which have been described in some papers. No feasible scheme has as yet been disclosed, but I think that I am guessing correctly when I say that the Germans contemplate the use of specially designed floating fortresses, which will be in sections and transportable by rail.

They will be made virtually invulnerable to torpedo and gun attack and will be equipped with guns of great range and destructive power constructed with this very object in view. Under the protection of these fortresses, which will sweep the coast clear, landing of troops and artillery is to be effected while bodies of infantry are transported through the air, this latter operation being performed under cover of darkness. With guns of inferior calibre, and more or less unprepared, it will be hard for the Britons to frustrate the attempt.

There is some foundation to the belief that the Germans may venture a naval engagement on a large scale. They have a smaller number of vessels, but they are mostly of quite modern type and without doubt every unit is in perfect order. All reports agree that their guns are superior to those of the British, both in range and durability. The Germans are masters in the manufacture and treatment of heat resisting materials and many technical branches in other countries are entirely dependent on their product. When we add to this advantage the possibilities offered by mines, torpedoes, submarines, Zeppelins and other means of destruction, skilful manoeuvre and surprise the numerical inequality of the fleet assumes secondary importance.

The marvelous exploit of a small German submarine which sank four British cruisers and escaped undamaged is in itself sufficient to justify the conclusion that the impending duel between the two countries will not be decided by guns and armor alone, considered heretofore supreme on the ocean. And yet the full capabilities of this kind of craft remain to be shown.

Germany is apt to go other nations one better. Most inventions originating elsewhere are improved by the Germans. Not only this, but they work for effect, knowing that to surprise is to strike, to strike is to win. It is highly probable that they have developed new things in submarines and may have solved the particular problem confronting them now, which is to destroy battleships in protected harbors.

This might be done by miniature vessels of simplified construction which would be virtually nothing but torpedoes and manned with one or two volunteer operators. The displacement would not need to be more than five tons, so that two or three, if not more, could be lowered from a Zeppelin in convenient localities at night. Such devices controlled by resolute men would be a new terror of the sea hard to guard against.

In general it will be very difficult for the British to combat effectively the submarine peril. An airship or aeroplane can be fought with a similar machine, but under water this method is impracticable and special craft will have to be perfected. Battleships might discourage submarine attacks by small shells filled with explosives of very high velocity so as to produce shocks of great intensity. Minute mines may also be employed, so constructed as to float at a certain depth and to explode on contact. They would do no harm to a large surface vessel but would reveal the presence of and injure a submarine, the delicate apparatus of which is easily deranged.

Next to guns the Zeppelin form of airship is the most valuable war asset of the Germans; at least they think so. Many difficulties had to be overcome in its development. A process of manufacturing cheaply pure hydrogen was perfected, a new alloy of remarkable strength and lightness produced, suitable and highly economical engines constructed and a number of other technical problems successfully solved. While not involving great originality it was a notable advance such as could only be achieved in Germany. Much has been said, both in exaltation and depreciation, of the Zeppelin, making it necessary to separate the wheat from the chaff before expressing an opinion as to its merits.

A claim has been advanced that a new non-inflammable gas was recently discovered, by the use of which the carrying capacity of the vessel is increased two and a half times. The only foundation of this persistent report is that according to the periodic hypothesis of elements evolved by the great Russian Mendelejeff, which has proved an unerring guide in chemical research, there should be a gas of an atomic weight 04. In a way its existence is demonstrated in the solar corona — hence the name coronium — and also in the aurora borealis, in which case it is referred to as terrestrial, or geocoronium.

In order to estimate what Germany might do with her air fleet a correct guess must be made as to its magnitude. Prior to the declaration of war she had thirty-six vessels of various sizes and actual facilities for turning out from eight to ten each month. But under war pressure this rate could be greatly increased.

The machine has passed the experimental stage and it is simply a question of reproduction. In view of the situation it would not be surprising to find that a hundred or more have been manufactured by this time. Produced in such numbers the cost of each would not be more than $ 125,000, which means that one hundred could be had for the price of one single dreadnought.

The carrying capacity has heretofore been given on the basis of passenger weight, but for war purposes it could be considerably increased, and in the latest type it might be as much as twenty tons. Such a vessel could transport 200 men with full equipment and a fleet of 100 could land 20,000 men in one operation.

But the possibilities of damage by explosives are much more impressive, especially as it can be inflicted without risk. A Zeppelin fitted out with proper instruments may sail in perfect safety at great height, find the exact point for attack by reference to two wireless plants in absolute darkness, drop many tons of picric compound and do this again and again.

Several experts have expressed themselves in a slighting manner in regard to the destructive effects, but the fact is that the explosion of three tons of dynamite produces an earthquake perceptible at a distance of thirty miles. If ten tons of clastic explosive were dropped into the heart of a large city thousands would be killed and hundreds of millions of property annihilated. Suppose that a fleet of 100 such vessels were to pass over England at night dropping 100,000 bombs of twenty pounds. Who can judge of the damage and demoralization which would ensue?

At the outbreak of the war it was reported that the Germans had devised a shell the poisonous fumes of which were of great destructiveness. Shortly after a marvelous

new explosive was said to have been produced in France named turpinite. The first intimation came from military quarters and some weight was attached to the news on this account and also because the discovery was attributed to Eugene Turpin, an ingenious and prolific inventor of chemicals.

The idea of employing poisonous or asphyxiating bombs is old. It is authoritatively stated that some were actually thrown during the second siege of Paris against the army of Versailles, but with the only result of killing the expert who was filling them. There is a natural and deeply rooted prejudice against the employment of poisonous agents in warfare, and many of those who tolerate the present methods of destroying life would shrink from such use. Yet death from many of the toxins known is less painful and disfiguring.

In the absence of demonstrated facts I will endeavor to show in a few words how the effectiveness of such means can be enormously increased. Consider first a large shell which, on striking the ground, liberates a poisonous gas of atmospheric density spreading in half a sphere, and let the effective radius be 1,000 feet. Now imagine that an equivalent charge is subdivided in one million parts, giving that many little shells which can be scattered over a large area. Then, since the gas will be of the same volume as before, the radius of action of each shell will be ten feet and their combined destructive effect will be 100 times greater than that of the large shell; in fact, much more so, for the distribution of the gas will not be uniform. It will be seen the secret lies in the employment of extremely small charges in great numbers.

The same reasoning leads to the conclusion that by using minute projectiles of tungsten dipped in curare or similar poison, paralyzing heart or locomotor function, a means for fighting battles would be provided more humane than the present and incomparably more effective. A complete revolution in methods of attack may be brought on through the use of toxins or asphyxiants heavier than air. This may be illustrated by an example.

Let us suppose that ten tons of such liquefied gas are dropped on a battlefield from an aerial vessel. On evaporating a gas blanket will be formed over the earth's surface, the effective height of which may be assumed to be ten feet. If ten cubic feet of the gas weigh one pound, then ten tons will give 200,000 cubic feet of gas, which may be more or less diluted, according to its toxic activity. Assume that it is not more poisonous than carbon monoxide, which is fatal when its percentage in the atmosphere is one-half of one per cent. That means that the gas blanket will contain 40,000,000 cubic feet, and being ten feet high it will cover 4,000,000 square feet, or, roughly, 100 acres. In a populated city, on account of structures and other objects, the deadly zone would be very much extended.

This is danger enough, but if a gas were employed of lethal power equal to that of prussic acid, aconitine or of the strongest poison known, pseudoaconitine, the destructive area would be a hundred times greater. Evidently then there is a prospect that the chemist, who is largely responsible for the war, may also find the means of compelling its speedy termination.

Telautomatics is a name suggested for the wireless control of the organs and translatory movements of self-propelled automata. Fifteen years ago I showed its first applications and the results were received with an interest such as only few inventions have elicited. My demonstrations were repeated in Germany and other countries, but on account of the fact that Hertz waves and imperfectly tuned circuits were employed a general impression was created that such distant control of apparatus was not absolutely reliable.

A further argument was advanced that if it were unfailing, volunteers could always be found ready for sacrifice and more dependable because of intelligence and judgment not possessed by an inanimate machine. This view is held by those who are now

advocating the use of manned aerial torpedoes, but nothing could be more erroneous. A crewless vessel controlled by proper wireless apparatus is in every way superior as a means of attack.

Large guns are now being manufactured in Germany so expensive and shortlived that a single shot from them costs a small fortune. It would be possible to produce for less than the price of a shot a telautomatic aerial torpedo of much longer range and greater destructiveness which would hit its mark every time and dispense with the necessity of the gun altogether.

The new principle can also be applied to a submarine, and, particularly in connection with control from great elevation, it will afford the most perfect means for coast defence so far devised. But its full possibilities will only be appreciated when the use of certain electrical waves to which the earth is resonantly responsive becomes general. It will then be practicable to despatch a crewless boat or balloon to distances of hundreds of miles, guide it along any chart at will and release its potential energy at any point desired.

Great many of the present means and methods will then become obsolete. It is very likely that if this war is protracted this invention will prove of importance. Recent reports would indicate that experiments are being made in Germany with telautomatic torpedoes released from balloons.

One good effect of this disastrous disturbance will be a long period of peace. This is a natural consequence of the law that action and reaction are equal. But in the present phase of human development occasional convulsions are in the order of things. A still greater struggle will probably come, that between the united races of the Orient and Occident.

So long as there are different nationalities there will be patriotism. This feeling must be eradicated from our hearts before permanent peace can be established. Its place must be filled by love of nature and scientific ideal. Science and discovery are the great forces which will lead to that consummation.

I have just made known an invention which will show to electricians how to produce immense electrical pressures and activities. By their means many wonderful results will be achieved. The human voice and likeness will be flashed around the globe without wire, energy projected through space, the wastes of the ocean will be made safe to navigation, transport facilitated, rain precipitated at will and, perhaps, the inexhaustible store of atomic energy released.

Advances of this kind will, in times to come, remove the physical causes of war, the chief of which is the vast extent of this planet. The gradual annihilation of distance will put human beings in closer contact and harmonize their views and aspirations. The harnessing of the forces of nature will banish misery and want and provide ample means for safe and comfortable existence.

But one more accomplishment will still be lacking to make the triumph of the mind of man complete. A way must be found to interpret thought and thereby enable the accurate reduction of all forms of human effort to a common equivalent. The problem is susceptible of solution.

The consequences of such an advance are incalculable. A new epoch in human history would be inaugurated and a colossal revolution in moral, social and other respects accomplished, innumerable causes of trouble would be removed, our lives profoundly modified for the better, and a new and firm foundation laid to all that makes for peace.

HOW COSMIC FORCES SHAPE OUR DESTINIES*

Every living being is an engine geared to the wheelwork of the universe. Though seemingly affected only by its immediate surrounding, the sphere of external influence extends to infinite distance. There is no constellation or nebula, no sun or planet, in all the depths of limitless space, no passing wanderer of the starry heavens, that does not exercise some control over its destiny — not in the vague and delusive sense of astrology, but in the rigid and positive meaning of physical science.

More than this can be said. There is no thing endowed with life — from man, who is enslaving the elements, to the numblest creature — in all this world that does not sway it in turn. Whenever action is born from force, though it be infinitesimal, the cosmic balance is upset and universal motion results.

Herbert Spencer has interpreted life as a continuous adjustment to the environment, a definition of this inconceivably complex manifestation quite in accord with advanced scientific thought, but, perhaps, not broad enough to express our present views. With each step forward in the investigation of its laws and mysteries our conceptions of nature and its phases have been gaining in depth and breadth.

In the early stages of intellectual development man was conscious of but a small part of the macrocosm. He knew nothing of the wonders of the microscopic world, of the molecules composing it, of the atoms making up the molecules and of the dwindlingly small world of electrons within the atoms. To him life was synonymous with voluntary motion and action. A plant did not suggest to him what it does to us — that it lives and feels, fights for its existence, that it suffers and enjoys. Not only have we found this to be true, but we have ascertained that even matter called inorganic, believed to be dead, responds to irritants and gives unmistakable evidence of the presence of a living principle within.

Thus, everything that exists, organic or inorganic, animated or inert, is susceptible to stimulus from the outside. There is no gap between, no break of continuity, no special and distinguishing vital agent. The same law governs all matter, all the universe is alive. The momentous question of Spencer, "What is it that causes inorganic matter to run into organic forms?" has been answered. It is the sun's heat and light. Wherever they are there is life. Only in the boundless wastes of interstellar space, in the eternal darkness and cold, is animation suspended, and, possibly, at the temperature of absolute zero all matter may die.

MAN AS A MACHINE

This realistic aspect of the perceptible universe, as a clockwork wound up and running down, dispensing with the necessity of a hypermechanical vital principle, need not be in discord with our religious and artistic aspirations — those undefinable

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* New York American, Febr. 7, 1915 ("Did the War cause the Italian Earthquake"),

and beautiful efforts through which the human mind endeavors to free itself from material bonds. On the contrary, the better understanding of nature, the consciousness that our knowledge is true, can only be all the more elevating and inspiring.

It was Descartes, the great French philosopher, who, in the seventeenth century, laid the first foundation to the mechanistic theory of life, not a little assisted by Harvey's epochal discovery of blood circulation. He held that animals were simply automata without consciousness and recognized that man, though possessed of a higher and distinctive quality, is incapable of action other than those characteristic of a machine. He also made the first attempt to explain the physical mechanism of memory. But in this time many functions of the human body were not as yet understood, and in this respect some of his assumptions were erroneous.

Great strides have since been made in the art of anatomy, physiology and all branches of science, and the workings of the man-machine are now perfectly clear. Yet the very fewest among us are able to trace their actions to primary external causes. It is indispensable to the arguments I shall advance to keep in mind the main facts which I have myself established in years of close reasoning and observation and which may be summed up as follows:

1. The human being is a self-propelled automaton entirely under the control of external influences. Willful and predetermined though they appear, his actions are governed not from within, but from without. He is like a float tossed about by the waves of a turbulent sea.

2. There is no memory or retentive faculty based on lasting impression. What we designate as memory is but increased responsiveness to repeated stimuli.

3. It is not true, as Descartes taught, that the brain is an accumulator. There is no permanent record in the brain, there is no stored knowledge. Knowledge is something akin to an echo that needs a disturbance to be called into being.

4. All knowledge or form conception is evoked through the medium of the eye, either in response to disturbances directly received on the retina or to their fainter secondary effects and reverberations. Other sense organs can only call forth feelings which have no reality of existence and of which no conception can be formed.

5. Contrary to the most important tenet of Cartesian philosophy that the perceptions of the mind are illusionary, the eye transmits to it the true and accurate likeness of external things. This is because light propagates in straight lines and the image cast on the retina is an exact reproduction of the external form and one which, owing to the mechanism of the optic nerve, can not be distorted in the transmission to the brain. What is more, the process must be reversible, that is to say, a form brought to consciousness can, by reflex action, reproduce the original image on the retina, just as an echo can reproduce the original disturbance. If this view is borne out by experiment an immense revolution in all human relations and departments of activity will be the consequence.

NATURAL FORCES INFLUENCE US

Accepting all this as true let us consider some of the forces and influences which act on such a wonderfully complex automatic engine with organs inconceivably sensitive and delicate, as it is carried by the spinning terrestrial globe in its lightning flight through space. For the sake of simplicity we may assume that the earth's axis is perpendicular to the ecliptic and that the human automaton is at the equator. Let his weight be one hundred and sixty pounds, then, at the rotational velocity of about 1,520 feet per second with which he is whirled around, the mechanical energy stored in his body will be nearly 5,780,000 foot pounds, which is about the energy of a hundred-pound cannon ball.

This momentum is constant as well as the upward centrifugal push, amounting to about fifty-five hundredth of a pound, and both will probably be without marked influence on his life functions. The sun, having a mass 332,000 times that of the earth, but being 23,000 times farther, will attract the automaton with a force of about one-tenth of one pound, alternately increasing and diminishing his normal weight by that amount.

Though not conscious of these periodic changes, he is surely affected by them.

The earth in its rotation around the sun carries him with the prodigious speed of nineteen miles per second and the mechanical energy imparted to him is over 25,160,000,000 foot pounds. The largest gun ever made in Germany hurls a projectile weighing one ton with a muzzle velocity of 3,700 feet per second, the energy being 429,000,000 foot pounds. Hence the momentum of the automaton's body is nearly sixty times greater. It would be sufficient to develop 762,400 horse-power for one minute, and if the motion were suddenly arrested the body would be instantly exploded with a force sufficient to carry a projectile weighing over sixty tons to a distance of twenty-eight miles.

This enormous energy is, however, not constant, but varies with the position of the automaton in relation to the sun. The circumference of the earth has a speed of 1,520 feet per second, which is either added to or subtracted from the translatory velocity of nineteen miles through space. Owing to this the energy will vary from twelve to twelve hours by an amount approximately equal to 1,533,000,000 foot pounds, which means that energy streams in some unknown way into and out of the body of the automaton at the rate of about sixty-four horse-power.

But this is not all. The whole solar system is urged towards the remote constellation of Hercules with a speed which some estimate at twenty miles per second, and owing to this there should be similar annual changes in the flux of energy, which may reach the apalling figure of over one hundred billion foot pounds. All these varying and purely mechanical effects are rendered more complex through the inclination of the orbital planes and many other permanent or casual mass actions.

This automaton is, however, subjected to other forces and influences. His body is at the electric potential of two billion volts, which fluctuates violently and incessantly. The whole earth is alive with electrical vibrations in which he takes part. The atmosphere crushes him with a pressure of from sixteen to twenty tons, according to barometric conditions. He receives the energy of the sun's rays in varying intervals at a mean rate of about forty foot pounds per second, and is subjected to periodic bombardment of the sun's particles, which pass through his body as if it were tissue paper. The air is rent with sounds which beat on his eardrums, and he is shaken by the unceasing tremors of the earth's crust. He is exposed to great temperature changes, to rain and wind.

What wonder then that in such a terrible turmoil, in which cast iron existence would seem impossible, this delicate human engine should act in an exceptional manner?If all automata were in every respect alike they would react in exactly the same way, but this is not the case. There is concordance in response to those disturbances only which are most frequently repeated, not to all. It is quite easy to provide two electrical systems which, when subjected to the same influence, will behave in just the opposite way.

So also two human beings, and what is true of individuals also holds good for their large aggregations. We all sleep periodically. This is not an indispensable physiological necessity any more than stoppage at intervals is a requirement for an engine. It is merely a condition gradually imposed upon us by the diurnal revolution of the globe, and this is one of the many evidences of the truth of the mechanistic theory. We note a rhythm, or ebb and tide, in ideas and opinions, in financial and political movements, in every department of our intellectual activity.

It only shows that in all this a physical system of mass inertia is involved which affords a further striking proof. If we accept the theory as a fundamental truth and, furthermore, extend the limits of our sense perceptions beyond those within which we become conscious of the external impressions, then all the states in human life, however unusual, can be plausibly explained. A few examples may be given in illustration.

The eye responds only to light vibrations through a certain rather narrow range, but the limits are not sharply defined. It is also affected by vibrations beyond, only in a lesser degree. A person may thus become aware of the presence of another in darkness, or through intervening obstacles, and people laboring under illusions ascribe this to telepathy. Such transmission of thought is absurdly impossible.

The trained observer notes without difficulty that these phenomena are due to suggestion or coincidence. The same may be said of oral impressions, to which musical and imitative people are especially susceptible. A person possessing these qualities will often respond to mechanical shocks or vibrations which are inaudible.

To mention another instance of momentary interest reference may be made to dancing, which comprises certain harmonious muscular contractions and contortions of the body in response to a rhythm. How they come to be in vogue just now can be satisfactorily explained by supposing the existence of some new periodic disturbances in the environment, which are transmitted through the air or the ground and may be of mechanical, electrical or other character.

Exactly so it is with wars, revolutions and similar exceptional states of society.

Though it may seem so, a war can never be caused by arbitrary acts of man.

It is invariably the more or less direct result of cosmic disturbance in which the sun is chiefly concerned.

In many international conflicts of historical record which were precipitated by famine, pestilence or terrestrial catastrophes the direct dependence of the sun is unmistakable. But in most cases the underlying primary causes are numerous and hard to trace.

In the present war it would be particularly difficult to show that the apparently wilful acts of a few individuals were not causative. Be it so. The mechanistic theory, being founded on truth demonstrated in everyday experience, absolutely precludes the possibility of such a state being anything but the inevitable consequence of cosmic disturbance.

The question naturally presents itself as to whether there is some intimate relation between wars and terrestrial upheavals. The latter are of decided influence on temperament and disposition, and might at times be instrumental in accelerating the clash, but aside from this there seems to be no mutual dependence, though both may be due to the same primary cause.

What can be asserted with perfect confidence is that the earth may be thrown into convulsions through mechanical effects such as are produced in modern warfare. This statement may be startling, but it admits of a simple explanation.

Earthquakes are principally due to two causes — subterranean explosions or structural adjustments. The former are called volcanic, involve immense energy and are hard to start. The latter are named tectonic; their energy is comparatively insignificant and they can be caused by the slightest shock or tremor. The frequent slides in the Culebra are displacements of this kind.

WAR AND THE EARTHQUAKE

Theoretically, it may be said that one might think of a tectonic earthquake and cause it to occur as a result of the thought, for just preceding the release the mass may be in the most delicate balance. There is a popular error in regard to the energy of such displacements. In a case recently reported as quite extraordinary, extending as it did over a vast territory, the energy was estimated at 65,000,000,000,000 foot tons. Assuming even that the whole work was performed in one minute it would only be equivalent to that of 7,500,000 horse-power during one year, which seems much, but is little for a terrestrial upheaval. The energy of the sun's rays falling on the same area is a thousand times greater.

The explosions of mines, torpedoes, mortars and guns develop reactive forces on the ground which are measured in hundreds or even thousands of tons and make themselves felt all over the globe. Their effect, however, may be enormously magnified by resonance. The earth is a sphere of a rigidity slightly greater than that of steel and vibrates once in about one hour and forty-nine minutes.

If, as might well be possible, the concussions happen to be properly timed their combined action could start tectonic adjustments in any part of the earth, and the Italian calamity may thus have been the result of explosions in France. That man can produce such terrestrial convulsions is beyond any doubt, and the time may be near when it will be done for purposes good or apt.

THE WONDER WORLD TO BE CREATED BY ELECTRICITY*

Whoever wishes to get a true appreciation of the greatness of our age should study the history of electrical development. There he will find a story more wonderful than any tale from the Arabian Nights. It begins long before the Christian era, when Thales, Theophrastus and Pliny tell of the magic properties of electron — the precious substance we call amber — that came from the pure tears of the Heliades, sisters of Phaeton, the unfortunate youth who attempted to run the blazing chariot of Phoebus and nearly burned up the earth. It was but natural for the vivid imagination of the Greeks to ascribe the mysterious manifestations to a hyperphysical cause, to endow the amber with life and with a soul.

Whether this was actual belief or merely poetic interpretation is still a question. Even at this very day many of the most enlightened people think that the pearl is alive; that it grows more lustrous and beautiful in the warm contact of the human body. So, too, it is the opinion of men of science that a crystal is a living being, and this view is being extended to embrace the entire physical universe since Prof. Jagadis Chunder Bose has demonstrated, in a series of remarkable experiments, that inanimate matter responds to stimuli in exactly the same manner as plant fiber and animal tissue.

The superstitious belief of the ancients, if it existed at all, can therefore not be taken as a reliable proof of their ignorance, but just how much they knew about electricity can only be conjectured. A curious fact is that the ray or torpedo fish was used by them in electrotherapy. Some old coins show twin stars, or sparks, such as might be produced by a galvanic battery. The records, though scanty, are of a nature to fill us with conviction that a few initiated, at least, had a deeper knowledge of amber phenomena. To mention one, Moses was undoubtedly a practical and skillful electrician far in advance of his time. The Bible describes precisely and minutely arrangements constituting a machine in which electricity was generated by friction of air against silk curtains and stored in a box constructed like a condenser. It is very plausible to assume that the sons of Aaron were killed by a high-tension discharge, and that the vestal fires of the Romans were electrical. The belt drive must have been known to engineers of that epoch, and it is difficult to see how the abundant evolution of static electricity could have escaped their notice. Under favorable atmospheric conditions a belt may be transformed into a dynamic generator capable of producing many striking actions. I have lighted incandescent lamps, operated motors and performed numerous other equally interesting experiments with electricity drawn from belts and stored in tin cans.

That many facts in regard to the subtle force were known to the philosophers of old can be safely concluded. The wonder is, why 2000 years elapsed before Gilbert in 1600 published his famous work, the first scientific treatise on electricity and magnetism. To an extent this long period of unproductiveness can be explained. Learning

* Manufacturer's Record, Sept. 9, 1915.

was the privilege of a few and all information was jealously guarded. Communication was difficult and slow, and a mutual understanding between widely-separated investigators hard to reach. Then again, men of those times had no thought of the practical; they lived and fought for abstract principles, creeds, traditions and ideals. Humanity did not change much in Gilbert's time, but his clear teachings had a telling effect on the minds of the learned. Friction machines were produced in rapid succession and experiments and observations multiplied. Gradually fear and superstition gave way to scientific insight, and in 1745 the world was thrilled with the news that Kleist and Leyden had succeeded in imprisoning the uncanny agent in a phial, from which it escaped with an angry snap and destructive force. This was the birth of the condenser, perhaps the most marvelous electrical device ever invented.

Two tremendous leaps were made in the succeeding 40 years. One was when Franklin demonstrated the identity between the gentle soul of amber and the awe-inspiring bolt of Jupiter; the other when Galvany and Volta brought out the contact and chemical battery, from which the magic fluid could be drawn in unlimited quantities. The succeeding 40 years bore still greater fruit. Oersted made a significant advance in deflecting a magnetic needle by an electric current, Arago produced the electro-magnet, Seebeck the thermopile and in 1831, as the crowning achievement of all, Faraday announced that he had obtained electricity from a magnet, thus discovering the principle of that wonderful engine, the dynamo, and inaugurating a new era both in scientific research and practical application.

From that time on inventions of inestimable value have followed one another at a bewildering rate. The telegraph, telephone, phonograph and incandescent lamp, the induction motor, oscillatory transformer, Roentgen ray, radium, wireless and numerous other revolutionary advances have been made and all conditions of existence profoundly modified. In the 84 years which have since elapsed the subtle agents dwelling in the living amber and loadstone have been transformed into cyclopean forces, turning the wheels of human progress with ever-increasing speed. This, in brief, is the fairy tale of electricity from Thales to the present day. The impossible has happened, the wildest dreams have been surpassed and the astounded world is asking. What is coming next?

ELECTRICAL POSSIBILITIES IN COAL AND IRON

Many a would-be discoverer, failing in his efforts, has felt the regret to have been born at a time when everything has been already accomplished and nothing is left to be done. This erroneous impression that, as we are advancing, the possibilities of invention are being exhausted, is not uncommon. In reality it is just the opposite. Spenser has conveyed the right idea when he likened civilization to the sphere of light which a lamp throws out in darkness. The brighter the lamp and the larger the sphere the greater is its dark boundary. It is paradoxical, yet true, to say, that the more we know the more ignorant we become in the absolute sense, for it is only through enlightenment that we become conscious of our limitations. Precisely one of the most gratifying results of intellectual evolution is the continuous opening up of new and greater prospects. We are progressing at an amazing pace, but the truth is that, even in the fields most successfully exploited, the ground has only been broken. What has been so far done by electricity is nothing as compared with what the future has in store. Not only this, but there are now innumerable things done in old-fashioned ways which are much inferior in economy, convenience and many other respects to the new method. So great are the advantages of the latter that whenever an opportunity presents itself the engineer advises his client to "do it electrically."

Consider, in illustration, one of the largest industries, that of coal. From this valuable mineral we chiefly draw the sun's stored energy which is required to meet our industrial and commercial needs. According to statistical records, the output in the United States during the past year was 480,000,000 tons. In perfect engines this fuel would have been sufficient to develop 500,000,000 horse-power steadily for one year, but the squandering is so reckless that we do not get more than 5 per cent. of its heating value on the average. There is an appalling waste in mining, handling, transportation, store and use of coal, which could be very much reduced through the adoption of a comprehensive electrical plan in all these operations. The market value of the yearly product could be easily doubled and an immense sum added to the revenues of the country. What is more, inferior grades, billions of tons of which are being thrown away, might be turned to profitable use.

Similar considerations apply to natural gas and mineral oil, the annual loss of which amounts to hundreds of millions of dollars. In the very near future such waste will be looked upon as criminal and the introduction of the new methods will be forced upon the owners of such properties. Here, then, is an immense field for the use of electricity in many ways, vast industries which are bound to be revolutionized through its extensive application.

To give another example, I may refer to the manufacture of iron and steel, which is carried on in this country on a scale truly colossal. During the last year, notwithstanding unfavorable business conditions, 31,000,000 tons of steel have been produced. It would lead too far to dwell on the possibilities of electrical improvements in the manufacturing processes themselves, and I will only indicate what is likely to be accomplished in using the waste gases from the coke ovens and blast furnaces to generate electricity for industrial purposes.

Since in the production of pig-iron for every ton about one ton of coke is employed, the yearly consumption of coke may be put at 31,000,000 tons. The combustion in the blast furnaces yields, per minute, 7,000,000 cubic feet of gas of a heating value of 110 B. T. units per cubic foot. Of this total, without making special provision, 4,000,000 cubic feet may be made available for power purposes. If all the heat energy of this gas could be transformed into mechanical effort, it would develop 10,389,000 horse-power. This result is impossible, but it is perfectly practicable to obtain 2,500,000 horse-power electrical energy at the terminals of the dynamos.

In the manufacture of coke approximately 9400 cubic feet of gas are evolved per ton of coal. This gas is excellent for power purposes, having an average heating value of 600 B. T. units, but very little is now used in engines, largely because of their great cost and other imperfections. A ton of coke requires about 1.32 tons of American coal; hence the total coal consumption per annum on the above basis is nearly 41,000,000 tons, which give, per minute, 733,000 cubic feet of gas. Assuming the yield of surplus or rich gas to be 333,000 cubic feet, the balance of 400,000 cubic feet could be used in gas engines. The heat contents would be, theoretically, sufficient to develop 5,660,000 horse-power, of which 1,500,000 horse-power could be obtained in the form of electric energy.

I have devoted much thought to this industrial proposition, and find that *with new, efficient, extremely cheap and simple thermo-dynamic transformers not less than 4,000,000 horse-power could be developed in electric generators by utilizing the heat of these gases, which, if not entirely wasted, are only in part and inefficiently employed.*

With systematic improvements and refinements much better results could be secured and an annual revenue of $ 50,000,000 or more derived. The electrical energy could be advantageously used in the fixation of atmospheric nitrogen and production of fertilizers, for which there is an unlimited demand and the manufacture of which is

restricted here on account of the high cost of power. I expect confidently the practical realization of this project in the very near future, and look to exceptionally rapid electrical development in this direction.

HYDRO-ELECTRIC DEVELOPMENT

Water-power offers great opportunities for novel electrical applications, particularly in the department of electro-chemistry. The harnessing of waterfalls is the most economical method known for drawing energy from the sun. This is due to the fact that both water and electricity are incompressible. The net efficiency of the hydro-electric process can be as high as 85 per cent. The initial outlay is generally great, but the cost of maintenance is small and the convenience offered ideal. My alternating system is invariably employed, and so far about 7,000,000 horse-power have been developed. As generally used we do not get more than six-hundredths of a horse-power per ton of coal per year. *This water energy is therefore equivalent to that obtainable from an annual supply of 120,000,000 tons of coal, which is about 25 per cent. of the total output in the United States.* The estimate is conservative, and in view of the immense waste of coal 50 per cent. may be a closer guess.

We get better appreciation of the tremendous value of this power in our economic development when we remember that, unlike fuel, which demands a terrible sacrifice of human energy and is consumed, it is supplied without effort and destruction of material and equals the mechanical performance of 150,000,000 men — one and one- half times the entire population of this country. These figures are imposing; nevertheless, we have only begun the exploitation of this vast national resource.

There are two chief limitations at present — one in the availability of the energy, the other in its transmission to distance. The theoretical power of the falling water is enormous. If we assume for the rain clouds an average height of 15,000 feet and annual precipitation of 33 inches, the 24 horse-power per square mile is over 4000, and for the whole area of the United States more than 12,000,000,000 horse-power. As a matter of fact, the larger portion of the potential energy is used up in air friction. This, while disappointing to the economist, is a fortunate circumstance, for otherwise the drops would reach the ground with a speed of 800 feet per second — sufficient to raise blisters on our bodies, while hail would be positively deadly. Most of the water, which is available for power purposes comes from a height of about 2000 feet and represents over one and one-half billion horse-power, but we are only able to use an average fall of, say, 100 feet, which means that if all the water- power in this country were harnessed under the existing conditions only 80,000,000 horse-power could be obtained.

THE NEXT GREAT ACHIEVEMENT—ELECTRICAL CONTROL OF ATMOSPHERIC MOISTURE

But the time is very near when we shall have the precipitation of the moisture of the atmosphere under complete control, and then it will be possible to draw unlimited quantities of water from the oceans, develop any desired amount of energy, and completely transform the globe by irrigation and intensive farming. A greater achievement of man through the medium of electricity can hardly be imagined.

The present limitations in the transmission of power to distance will be overcome in two ways — through the adoption of underground conductors insulated by power, and through the introduction of the wireless art. The first plan I have advanced years ago. The underlying principle is to convey through a tubular conductor hydrogen at a very low temperature, freeze the surrounding material and thus secure a perfect

insulation by indirect use of electric energy. In this manner the power derived from falls can be transmitted to distances of hundreds of miles with the highest economy and at a small cost. This innovation is sure to greatly extend the fields of electrical application. As to the wireless method, we have now the means for economic transmission of energy in any desired amount and to distances only limited by the dimensions of this planet. In view of assertions of some misinformed experts to the effect that in the wireless system I have perfected the power of the transmitter is dissipated in all directions, I wish to be emphatic in my statement that such is not the case. The energy goes only to the place where it is needed and to no other.

When these advanced ideas are practically realized we shall get the full benefit of water-power, and it will become our chief dependence in the supply of electricity for domestic, public and other uses in the arts of peace and war.

ECONOMY IN LIGHT AND POWER — ELECTRIC PROPULSION

In the great departments of electric light and power immense opportunities are offered through the introduction of all kinds of novel devices which can be attached to the circuits at convenient hours for the purpose of equalizing the loads and increasing the revenues from the plants. I have myself knowledge of a number of new appliances of this kind. The most important among them is probably an electrical ice machine which obviates entirely the use of dangerous and otherwise objectionable chemicals. The new machine will also require absolutely no attention and will be extremely economical in operation, so that the refrigeration will be effected very cheaply and conveniently in every household.

An interesing fountain, electrically operated, has been brought out which is likely to be extensively introduced, and will afford an unusual and pleasing sight in squares, parks, hotels and residences.

Cooking devices for all domestic purposes are being provided, and there is great demand for practical designs and suggestions in this field. The same may be stated of electric signs and other attractive means of advertising which can be electrically operated. Some of the effects which it is possible to produce by electric currents are wonderful and lend themselves to exhibitions, and there is no doubt that much can be done in that direction. Theatres, public halls and private dwellings are in need of a great many devices and instruments for convenience and offer ample opportunities to an ingenious and practical inventor.

A vast and absolutely untouched field is the use of electricity for the propulsion of ships. The leading electrical company in this country has just equipped a large vessel with high-speed turbines and electric motors and has achieved a signal success. Applications of this kind will multiply at a rapid rate, for the advantages of the electrical drive are now patent to everybody. In this connection gyroscopic apparatus will probably play an important part, as its general adoption on vessels is sure to come. Very little has yet been done in the introduction of electrical drive in the various branches of industry and manufacture, and the prospects are unlimited.

A FEW OF THE WONDERS TO COME

Books have already been written on the agricultural uses of electricity, but the fact is that hardly anything has been practically done. The beneficial effects of electricity of high tension have been unmistakably established, and a revolution will be brought about through the extensive adoption of agricultural electrical apparatus.

The safeguarding of forests against fires, the destruction of microbes, insects and rodents will, in due course, be accomplished by electrical means.

In the near future we shall see a great many new uses of electricity aiming at safety, particularly of vessels at sea. *We shall have electrical instruments for preventing collisions, and we shall even be able to disperse fogs by electric force and powerful and penetrative rays.* I am hopeful that within the next few years *wireless plants will be installed for the purpose of illuminating the oceans.* The project is perfectly feasible, and if carried out will contribute more than any other provision to the safety of property and human lives at sea. The same plant could also produce stationary electrical waves and enable vessels to get at any time accurate bearings and other valuable practical data without resorting to the present means. It could also be used for time signaling and many other purposes of similar nature.

Electrotherapy is another great field in which there are unlimited possibilities for electrical applications. High-frequency currents especially have a great future. The time will come when this form of electrical energy will be available in every private residence. I consider it quite possible that through their surface actions we may do away with the customary bath, as the cleaning of the body can be instantaneously effected simply by connecting it to a source of currents or electric energy of very high potential, which results in the throwing off of dust or any small particles adhering to the skin. Such a dry bath, besides being convenient and time-saving, would also be of beneficial therapeutic influence. New electric devices for use of the deaf and blind are coming and will be a blessing to the afflicted.

In the prevention of crime electrical instruments will soon become an important factor. In court proceedings electric evidence will often be decisive. *In a time not distant it will be possible to flash any image formed in thought on a screen and render it visible at any place desired.* The perfection of this means of reading thought will create a revolution for the better in all our social relations. Unfortunately, it is true, that cunning lawbreakers will avail themselves of such advantages to further their nefarious business.

TELEGRAPHIC PHOTOGRAPHY AND OTHER ADVANCES

Great improvements are still possible in telegraphy and telephony. The use of a new receiving device which will be shortly described, and the sensitiveness of which can be increased almost without limit, will enable telephoning through aerial lines or cables however long by reducing the necessary working current to an infinitesimal value. This invention will dispense with the necessity of resorting to expensive constructions, which, however, are of circumscribed usefulness. It will also enormously extend the wireless transmission of intelligence in all its departments.

The next art to be inaugurated is that of picture transmission by ordinary telegraphic methods and existing apparatus. This idea of telegraphing or telephoning pictures is old, but practical difficulties have hampered commercial realizations. A number of improvements of great promise have been made, and there is every reason to expect that success will soon be achieved.

Another valuable novelty will be a typewriter electrically operated by the human voice. This advance will fill a long-felt want, as it will do away with the operator and save a great deal of labor and time in offices.

A new and extremely simple electric tachometer is being prepared for the market, and it is expected that it will prove useful in power plants and central stations, on boats, locomotives and automobiles.

Many municipal improvements based on the use of electricity are about to be introduced. *We have soon to have everywhere smoke annihilators, dust absorbers, ozonizers, sterilizers of water, air, food and clothing, and accident preventers on streets, elevated roads and in subways. It will become next to impossible to contract disease germs or get hurt in the city, and country folk will go to town to rest and get well.*

ELECTRIC INVENTIONS IN WAR

The present international conflict is a powerful stimulus to invention of devices and implements of warfare. An electric gun will soon be brought out. The wonder is that it was not produced long ago. Dirigibles and aeroplanes will be equipped with small electric generators of high tension, from which the deadly currents will be conveyed through tin wires to the ground. Battleships and submarines will be provided with electric and magnetic feelers so delicate that the approach of any body under water or in darkness will be detected. Torpedoes and floating mines are almost in sight which will direct themselves automatically and without fail get in fatal contact with the object to be destroyed. The art of telautomatics, or wireless control of automatic machines at a distance, will play a very important part in future wars and, possibly, in the next phases of the present one. Such contrivances which act as if endowed with intelligence will be used in innumerable ways for attack as well as defense. They may take the shape of aeroplanes, balloons, automobiles, surface or under-water boats, or any other form according to the requirement in each special case, and will be of greater range and destructiveness than the implements now employed. *I believe that the telautomatic aerial torpedo will make the large siege gun, on which so much dependence is placed at present, obsolete.*

A volume might be filled with such suggestions without exhausting the possibilities. The advance even under the conditions existing is rapid enough, but when the wireless transmission of energy for general use becomes a practical fact the human progress will assume the character of a hurricane. So all-surpassing is the importance of this marvelous art to the future existence and welfare of the human race that every enlightened person should have a clear idea of the chief factors bearing on its development.

THE POWER OF THE FUTURE

We have at our disposal three main sources of life-sustaining energy — fuel, water-power and the heat of the sun's rays. Engineers often speak of harnessing the tides, but the discouraging truth is that the tidewater over one acre of ground will, on the average, develop only one horse-power. Thousands of mechanics and inventors have spent their best efforts in trying to perfect wave motors, not realizing that the power so obtained could never compete with that derived from other sources. The force of wind offers much better chances and is valuable in special instances, but is by far inadequate. Moreover, the tides, waves and winds furnish only periodic and often uncertain power and necessitate the employment of large and expensive storage plants. Of course, there are other possibilities, but they are remote, and we must depend on the first of three resources. If we use fuel to get our power, we are living on our capital and exhausting it rapidly. This method is barbarous and wantonly wasteful, and will have to be stopped in the interest of coming generations. The heat of the sun's rays represents an immense amount of energy vastly in excess of water-power. The earth receives an equivalent of 83 foot-pounds per second for each square foot on which the rays fall perpendicularly. From simple geometrical rules applying to a spherical body it follows

that the mean rate per square foot of the earth's surface is one-quarter of that, or 20¾ foot-pounds. This is to say over one million horse-power per square mile, or 250 times the water-power for the same area. But that is only true in theory; the practical facts put this in a different aspect. For instance, considering the United States, and taking into account the mean latitude, the daily variation, the diurnal changes, the seasonal variations and casual changes, this power of the sun's rays reduces to about one-tenth, or 100,000 horse-power per square mile, of which we might be able to recover in high-speed low-pressure turbines 10,000 horse-power. To do this would mean the instalment of apparatus and storage plants so large and expensive that such a project is beyond the pale of the practical. *The inevitable conclusion is that water-power is by far our most valuable resource. On this humanity must build its hopes for the future.* With its full development and a perfect system of wireless transmission of the energy to any distance man will be able to solve all the problems of material existence. Distance, which is the chief impediment to human progress, will be completely annihilated in thought, word and action. Humanity will be united, wars will be made impossible and peace will reign supreme.

ELECTRIC DRIVE FOR BATTLE SHIPS*

The ideal simplicity of the induction motor, its perfect reversibility and other unique qualities render it eminently suitable for ship propulsion, and ever since I brought my system of power transmission to the attention of the profession through the American Institute of Electrical Engineers I have vigorously insisted on its application for that purpose. During many years the scheme was declared to be impracticable and I was assailed in a manner as vicious as incompetent. In 1900, when an article from me advocating the electric drive appeared in the Century Magazine, Marine Engineering pronounced the plan to be the "climax of asininity," and such was the fury aroused by my proposals that the editor of another technical periodical resigned and severed his connection rather than to allow the publication of some attacks.

A similar reception was accorded to my wireless boat repeatedly described in the Herald of 1898. The patents on these inventions have since expired and they are now common property. Meanwhile insane antagonism and ignorance have been replaced by helpful interest and appreciation of their value. Recently the Navy Department has let contracts aggregating $ 100,000,000 for the construction of seven war vessels with the induction motor drive, and an equal sum is appropriated to cover the cost of four huge battle cruisers which are to be fitted out in the same way. This latter project is resisted by some shipbuilders, turbine makers, electrical manufacturers and engineers who, in fear of a fatal mistake by the government and under the sway of patriotic motives, urged upon the authorities the employment of the geared turbine.

CONTROVERSIAL CORRESPONDENCE

Numerous letters of protest have been written to C. A. Swanson, of the Senate Naval Committee, but what has so far come out of this correspondence is purely controversial and of no profit whatever to those who seek information. It is regrettable that the question should have been raised at this critical moment, when speedy preparation against threatening national perils is recognized as imperative, and in view of this no doubt should be permitted to remain in the public mind as to the superiority of the equipment recommended by the naval experts. In the following I shall endeavor to make this clear to the general reader.

The most efficient means of propulsion is a jet of water expelled astern from the body of the vessel. Though the theoretical laws governing its action were precisely expressed fifty years ago by Rankine, a singular and inexplicable prejudice against this device still prevails among engineers and writers of text books on hydraulics. But the far sighted are keenly alive to its possibilities. While our present motive resources do not admit of an advantageous use of the jet, it can be confidently predicted that it will soon

* New York Herald, Febr. 25, 1917.

be instrumental in a more complete conquest of the deep. I firmly believe that at this writing it is being applied to the submarines devastating the oceans, for their silence alone can explain why they escape so easily detection by microphonic instruments. The sound emitted is the Achilles talon of the undersea boat. Its suppression materially increases the destructiveness of the new weapon.

THE HELICAL PROPELLER

However, under the existing conditions the best results are obtained in all kinds of surface craft with a helical propeller, which is operated in four different ways. First, straight from the shaft of the prime mover; second, by means of a gear wheel; third, through a hydraulic transformer, and, fourth, by an electric transmitter of power. As the screw in order to save energy must be revolved at a moderate rate, the first mentioned, or "direct drive," lends itself best to a reciprocating or rotary engine. The former is clumsy, the latter impossible, and competition has forced the turbine on the market. But, excessive speed being indispensable to its good performance, it had to be adapted to the propeller. This was, in a measure, accomplished by "staging" — that is, passing the steam through a number of turbines in succession — a plan obviously entailing great drawbacks, financial and otherwise. Need of reducing the bulk and cost of the machinery and insuring better working then compelled the adoption of the second arrangement — "geared turbine drive" — in which a peculiar pinioned wheel, first introduced by De Laval, transmits motion to the screw. Next, efforts to do away with certain limitations of this combination resulted in the third, or "hydraulic drive," the turbine actuating the propeller through a centrifugal pump and water motor. Finally, as the furthest step toward perfection, the last named disposition — "electric drive" — was resorted to. In this case the turbine imparts rotation to a dynamo, which in turn runs a motor carrying the screw on its shaft.

ADVANTAGES OF TYPES

Each of these forms has its supporters and champions. In principle the first would be the preferable were it not handicapped in many respects. The second type is cheap, but the gear is a serious objection. Though less economical, the third commends itself by a number of practical and valuable features. As to the last, it is not only very efficient but obtains results impossible with other forms. The law of survival of the fittest is asserting itself, and the struggle for supremacy is now on between the geared turbine and the electric drive.

Through gradual improvement of the cutting tools, scientific design, metallurgical advances and refinement of lubricants, the so-called herringbone gear has been brought to great perfection. De Laval attained an efficiency of ninety-seven per cent and MacAlpine, Melville and Westinghouse ninety-eight and one-half per cent in the transmission from the driving to the driven shaft. On the other hand, ninety-three and three-quarters per cent may be considered as the maximum with electrical apparatus. This means that with the gear the same turbine would impart five per cent more power to the propeller, which should increase the speed of the cruiser from thirty-five to a little more than thirty-five and one-half knots. As it also appears at first sight that the electric drive requires additional space, is heavier and more costly, it is only natural for those who have not made a thorough study of all its phases to decide in favor of the gear.

SOME FATAL MISTAKES

But a careful inquiry into the subject would induce them to reverse their opinion. In estimating the relative merits of these essentially different propelling means they make two fatal mistakes. The first is to take the power transmittted under abnormal conditions as a criterion; the second to draw a parallel between instalments entirely unlike, one primitive, the other elaborate, the former being incapable of fulfilling important functions of the latter. When premises are erroneous deductions therefrom must needs be faulty. Thus the opponents of the electric drive have been led to the conclusion that it is less efficient than the gear, of greater weight, more expensive and uncertain of success. How much truth there is in these contentions will be apparent from an examination of well established facts.

The electric drive is of complex influence on results in ship operation. For the sake of brevity it will be viewed only in the following principal aspects: — (1) turbine performance, (2) power transmitted to the propeller, (3) efficiency of the screw, (4) low power cruising, (5) high power action, (6) fuel consumption by auxiliaries and apparatus for ship use, (7) general economy and (8) promptness and precision of control of all effects, internal and external.

The present turbines are extremely unsuitable for ship propulsion. They offer a striking example of an antiquated invention of small value elevated to a position of extraordinary commercial utility through profound research and astonishing mechanical skill. With hundreds of thousands of thin blades easily destroyed, buckets that through corrosion and erosion soon become wasteful and small clearances between surfaces rotating at terrific rates, they are a cause of constant danger and hazard.

IRREVERSIBLE TURBINES

But their cardinal defect is that they are irreversible, which necessitates the employment of separate turbines for backing. These, besides involving great expense and considerable friction loss, impose narrow limits on the temperature of the working medium. Very high superheat, so desirable in thermo-dynamic conversion, is out of the question in such perishable structures, but from 200 to 300 degrees F. are permissible.

To that extent, then, the turbine is at an advantage when driving a dynamo. Two hundred degrees superheat will usually effect a saving of about twenty-three per cent of steam and ten per cent of fuel. This, however, is not the only gain. The turbine, freed from all the impediments of the gear drive, is capable of being safely run at a higher peripheral speed with a correspondingly increased efficiency and output. Thus, by moderate superheat and other simple and allowable expedients, it becomes practicable to develop twenty-five per cent more power from the same fuel, and this alone would make the electric drive decidedly superior to its competitor.

A MECHANICAL TOUR DE FORCE

As regards the power transmitted from the turbine to the propeller, it will seem in the light of the preceding that the gear is better by five per cent. That may be the case in exceptional tests, but it is quite different in actual service. To this is to be traced the error of those who are taking results obtained at constant load as standard of comparison. The perfection of the modern high speed gear was a veritable tour de force of the scientific machinist. It is a wonderful device, but it also has its inseparable weaknesses and shortcomings. Since the friction loss in it is sensibly constant through

a wide range of performance, a relatively great amount of energy is absorbed at small load. The gear is likewise very sensitive to shocks and vibrations, which break down the capillary oil film, vital to smooth running. In consequence, there is great waste of power when the resisting force is subject to frequent and sudden fluctuations. Measurements I made with turbine gears have shown that while the efficiency with steady and normal effort was ninety-six per cent, not more than ninety per cent was realized with a rapidly varying load. This is what might be expected in practice. Any one who has listened to the tortured engines of a steamship in heavy sea could not have failed to observe how the turning effort varies as the vessel rolls, pitches and ploughs through billows and conflicting undercurrents. A similar state of things is apt to confront a war ship in action, as was evidenced in recent naval engagements, when mountains of water were raised by the exploding shells. Under such circumstances the gear is at a great disadvantage, as the electric drive is susceptible to these drawbacks in a much smaller degree. The idea that the gear transmits more of the primary power to the propeller than the combination of dynamo and motor is, therefore, largely illusionary. There is ample evidence, experimental and inferential, that rather the opposite is true.

SUPERIORITY OF ELECTRIC DRIVE

Considering the efficiency of the screw as distinct from that attained in the transmission of power, it is admittedly better with the electric drive, this conclusion being entirely based on the superior adaptability and flexibility of the system. But there are deeper causes which should be taken into account. The interposition of electromagnetic means between the turbine and propeller materially reduces the loss due to shocks, vibrations, racing and other disturbances owing to inherent elastic resilience and equalizing tendency. The saving of energy thus effected at high speed and in a heavy sea is considerable.

Economy in cruising is one of the most desirable qualities of a war vessel. This is its ordinary use, for the chance of ever being engaged in battle is remote. The bitterest opponents of the electric drive do not deny that it excels in this feature, upon which the manufacturer chiefly relies in guaranteeing a fuel consumption from 10 to 12 per cent smaller than with the gear. The latter is hopelessly condemned by inability of adjustment to varying speed and wasteful in cruising operations, while the former is readily adaptable and economical under all conditions.

Another quality of the electric drive, which may prove especially valuable in action, is its capacity of carrying great overload without danger, owing to the nature of the connection between the turbine and propeller, as explained. The gear is rigid and unyielding and any increase of effort, particularly if sudden, may cause a breakdown.

SAVING OF POWER

Referring to the auxiliaries proper and other apparatus for ship use, to which are chargeable approximately 20 per cent of the fuel consumed, a very substantial saving of power will be achieved through the introduction of the electrical method.

Quite apart from this central station supply will be operative in reducing other waste, many accessories will be dispensed with and general economy materially increased.

But from the military point of view the quickness, ease and precision of control will perhaps be the most significant of the advantages gained. Everything may be made to respond instantly to the pressure of a button. By reversing the motors the vessel may be brought from full speed to a stop within its length. It will be possible to make

it go through all evolutions with extraordinary rapidity and a perfection of manoeuvre, undreamed of before, will be attained.

A curious mistake is made by the advocates of the turbine gear in estimating relative weight. It hardly needs be stated that it is unfair, if not absurd, to compare arrangements of widely different character and scope. Only such as are capable of accomplishing the same results should be considered. Now, a gear drive corresponding to the electric would consist of four main turbines with gears, four reversing turbines of the same capacity, and eight smaller driving and reversing turbines for cruising. This agglomeration of complex and not all too rugged machinery, with its network of water, air and oil pipes, valves, pumps and attachments, would by far exceed in weight the proposed electric drive, and would also require better structural protection, not to speak of other defects and shortcomings.

QUESTION OF WEIGHT

It should be observed, however, that the weights must be taken in their relation to that of the ship. One equipment may be heavier than another, but if it is more efficient and thereby reduces the weight of fuel and other cargo, it is for all purposes the lighter of the two.

The same is true of the cost. Comparative figures mean nothing. The question is whether the investment of capital is justified by what is to be accomplished. But enough has been said to show that for results in all respects equivalent, assuming them to be possible, the gear type, notwithstanding all claims to the contrary, would be more expensive.

That the electric drive is experimental and uncertain of performance is the least tenable of adverse assertions. In the first place, it has been successfully employed on a number of vessels and a great many more are being built. It also was found to be capable of an efficiency higher than that of any other form. But this is quite immaterial. The confidence that in the present instance all expectations will be realized is not based on a few demonstrations, but on years of experience with power plants ever since my system was commercially inaugurated. Tens of millions of horse power of induction motors are now in use the world over and no failure is recorded.

NEW CRUISERS' REQUIREMENTS

The new cruisers will require 180,000 horse power each, which, if necessary can be developed by four units of 45,000 horse power. Turbines of that capacity have been constructed and are in operation today. Dynamos of corresponding output have been installed at several places and are supplying light and power to large cities and districts. Induction motors of 15,000 horse power are being turned out by the manufacturers and can be produced in any size that may be desired, for of all kinds of motors this is the simplest and most dependable. Long since the whole system has been worked out and perfected to the least detail. The project is colossal, but it can be readily carried out by any of the few concerns who are possessed of the proper facilities. Not even a new tool has to be made. There is nothing whatever untried or hazardous about the electric drive.

Much stress is laid on reports, still to be verified, that it was rejected by England and Germany. But this is of no consequence. It has been rejected here more than once. Besides, there was war in the air of Europe and the time for radical innovations unpropitious. Moreover, the Diesel engine was looming up with large possibilities and

Dr. Föttinger's hydraulic drive was being tried. The beginning must be made somewhere and it would be deplorable indeed if the United States, where the invention was first announced and introduced on a gigantic scale, were the last to recognize it. Such mistakes have happened only too often. The foreign navies are not in the habit of keeping the press informed of their doings and it is safe to predict that if progress in this country is much retarded there will be a repetition of previous disappointments.

It is unnecessary to dwell on other objections which are of minor importance and of no bearing on the principle. Without going into tedious technical discussion, it may be stated that the electric drive, if judiciously designed, will save not less than twenty-five per cent of fuel and, with due regard to this and certain specific and invaluable advantages, will be lighter, cheaper and in every respect more dependable than the gear. In fact, I believe that a scheme can be devised permitting the placing of all vital parts below the water line. In view of this, it is to be hoped that the Secretary of the Navy will not pay attention to the protests of rivals, however patriotic, but will cause the good work to be pushed to completion with all the power at his command.

These statements are to be understood as reflecting the present state of the art. The advent of a reversible turbine will profoundly affect the situation in favor of the gear. Such a machine has been perfected and was described in the Herald of October 15, 1911. It is the lightest prime mover ever produced and can be operated without trouble at red heat, thereby obtaining a very high economy in the transformation of heat energy. I anticipate its speedy and extensive application to ship propulsion. But although an ideally simple and very inexpensive drive will be thus provided, there will still be weighty reasons for adopting the electric method on war ships. In order to dissipate all doubt created in the mind by diversified engineering opinion, I will make known but one of them, which in itself is sufficiently consequential and convincing to dispense with further arguments.

DISARMAMENT IMPOSSIBLE

It is idle to dream of disarmament and universal peace in the face of the terrible events which are now unfolding. They prove conclusively that no country will be allowed to control all others by any means. Before all peoples can feel secure of their national existence and worldwide harmony established certain obstacles will have to be removed, the chief of which are German militarism, British domination of the seas, the rising tide of Russian millions, the yellow peril and the money power of America. These adjustments will be slow and pennible in conformity with natural laws. International friction and armed conflict will not be banished from the earth for a long period to come. The drag on human progress would not be so great if war energy could be maintained in purely potential form. This can and will be done through the universal introduction of wireless power. Then all destructive energy will be obtained without effort merely by controlling the life sustaining forces of peace.

The maintenance of war ships and other military implements involves an appalling waste. A vessel costing twenty millions of dollars is rendered virtually worthless in the short span of ten years, deteriorating at the mean rate of two million dollars a year, interest not considered. Hardly more than one out of fifty serves its real purpose. To lessen this ruinous loss and exploit certain inventions I elaborated a scheme some years ago. It was recognized as rational bur financially and in other ways difficult of realization. Now, when national economy and preparedness have become burning questions, it assumes special import and significance.

TO USE WAR SHIPS IN PEACE

The underlying idea is to make war ships available for purposes of peace in a profitable manner, at the same time improving them in a number of features. I am aware of the proposal lately advanced to employ them as carriers of commerce, but this is not feasible and would be an impediment to further perfection. My project primarily contemplated the instalment of the electric drive and the use of the turbo-dynamos for light and power supply and manufacture of various valuable products and articles aboard or on land. This would be a step in the direction of present development meeting the objects of both military and industrial preparedness. I further intended the creation of a type of vessel on radically different principles, which would be a precious asset in peace and ever so much more destructive in war. The new cruisers, if equipped as planned by the Navy Department, will constitute four floating central stations of 180,000 horse power each. The turbines and dynamos are designed for highest efficiency and operate under most favorable conditions. The power they are capable of developing represents a market value of several million dollars a year and could be advantageously utilized at places where fuel can be readily obtained and transport is convenient. The plants would also prove of great value in cases of emergency. They could be quickly sent to any point along the coast of the United States or elsewhere and would enable the government to lend speedy assistance whenever necessary.

But this is not all. There is another and still more potent reason for adopting the electric method. It is founded on the knowledge that at a time not distant the present means and methods of warfare will be revolutionized through novel applications of electric force.

III

AN AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL ARTICLE

SOME PERSONAL RECOLLECTIONS*

I am glad to be accorded this opportunity for two reasons. In the first place I have long since desired to express my great appreciation of the Scientific American and to acknowledge my indebtedness for the timely and useful information which its columns are pouring out in a steady stream. It is a publication remarkable for the high quality of special articles as well as for the accurate review of technical advances. The knowledge it conveys is always reliable and rendered still more valuable through the scrupulous observance of literary courtesy in the quotation of the sources. The services it has rendered in helping invention and spreading enlightenment are inestimable. The Scientific American is a periodical ably and conscientiously conducted, measured and dignified in tone to the point of serving as a model, and in these features, as much as in the wealth and excellence of its contributions, it reflects great credit, not only on its staff and publishers, but on the whole country. This is not an idle compliment, but a genuine and well-deserved tribute to which I add my best wishes for continued success on this memorable occasion.

The second reason is one that concerns me personally. Many erroneous statements have appeared in print relative to my discovery of the rotating magnetic field and invention of the induction motor which I was compelled to pass in silence. Great interests have waged a long and bitter contest for my patent rights; commercial animosities and professional jealousies were aroused, and I was made to suffer in more than one way. But despite of all pressure and efforts of ingenious lawyers and experts, the rulings of the courts were in support of my claims for priority in every instance without exception. The battles have been fought and forgotten, the thirty or forty patents granted to me on the alternating system have expired, I have been released of burdensome obligations and am free to speak.

Every experience which I have lived through bearing on that early discovery is vividly present in my memory. I see the faces of the persons, the scenes and objects of my attention, with a sharpness and distinction and in a fullness of light which is astonishing, and is a measure of the intensity and depth of the original impressions. I have always been fortunate in ideas, but no other invention, however great, could be as dear to me as that first one. This will be understood if I dwell briefly on the circumstances surrounding it and some of the phases and incidents of my young life.

From my childhood I had been intended for the clergy. This prospect hung like a dark cloud on my mind. After passing eleven years at a public school and a higher institution, I obtained my certificate of maturity and found myself at the critical point of my career. Should I disobey my father, ignore the fondest wishes of my mother, or should I resign myself to fate? The thought oppressed me, and I looked to the future with dread.

Just at that time a terrible epidemic of cholera broke out in my native land. People knew nothing of the character of the disease and the means of sanitation were of the poorest kind. They burned huge piles of odorous shrubbery to purify the air, but drank

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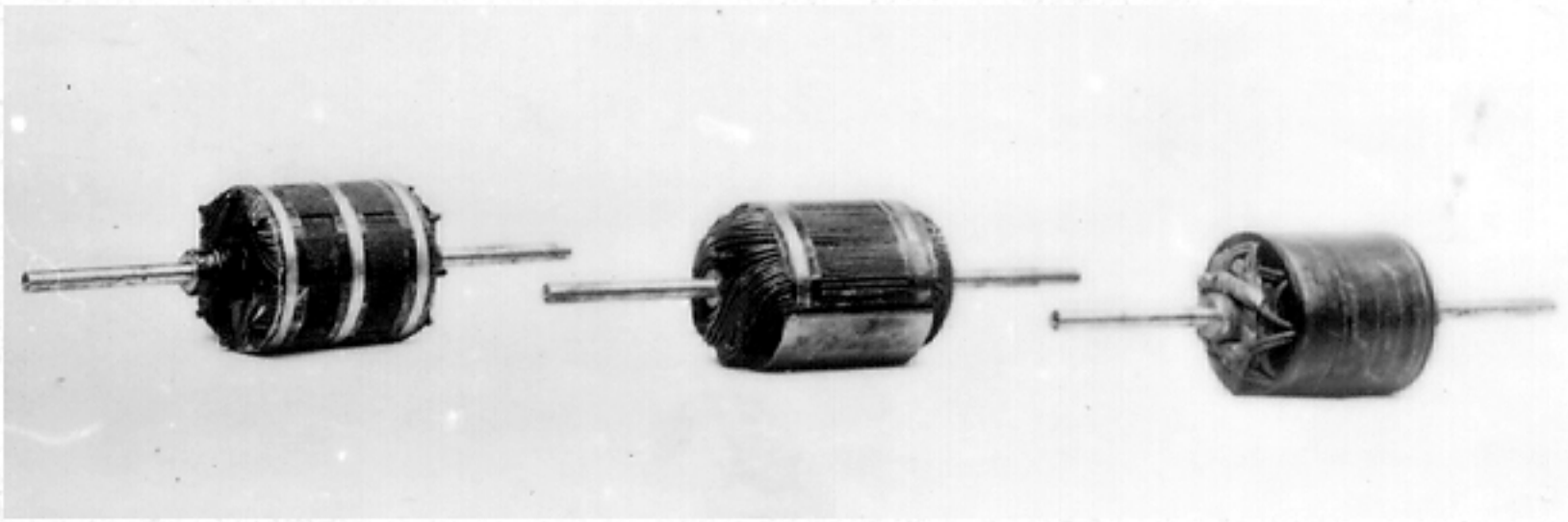
* Scientific American, June 5, 1915.

freely of the infected water and died in crowds like sheep. Contrary to peremptory orders from my father I rushed home and was stricken down. Nine months in bed with scarcely the ability to move seemed to exhaust all my vitality, and I was given up by the physicians. It was an agonizing experience, not so much because of physical suffering as on account of my intense desire to live. On the occasion of one of the fainting spells my father cheered me by a promise to let me study engineering; but it would have remained unfulfilled had it not been for a marvelous cure brought about by an old lady. There was no force of suggestion or mysterious influence about it. Such means would have had no effect whatever on me, for I was a firm believer in natural laws. The remedy was purely medicinal, heroic if not desperate; but it worked and in one year of mountain climbing and forest life I was fit for the most arduous bodily exertion. My father kept his word, and in 1877 I entered the Joanneum in Gratz, Styria, one of the oldest technical institutions of Europe. I proposed to show results which would repay my parents for their bitter disappointment due to my change of vocation. It was not a passing determination of a light-hearted youth; it was iron resolve. As some young reader of the Scientific American might draw profit from my example I will explain.

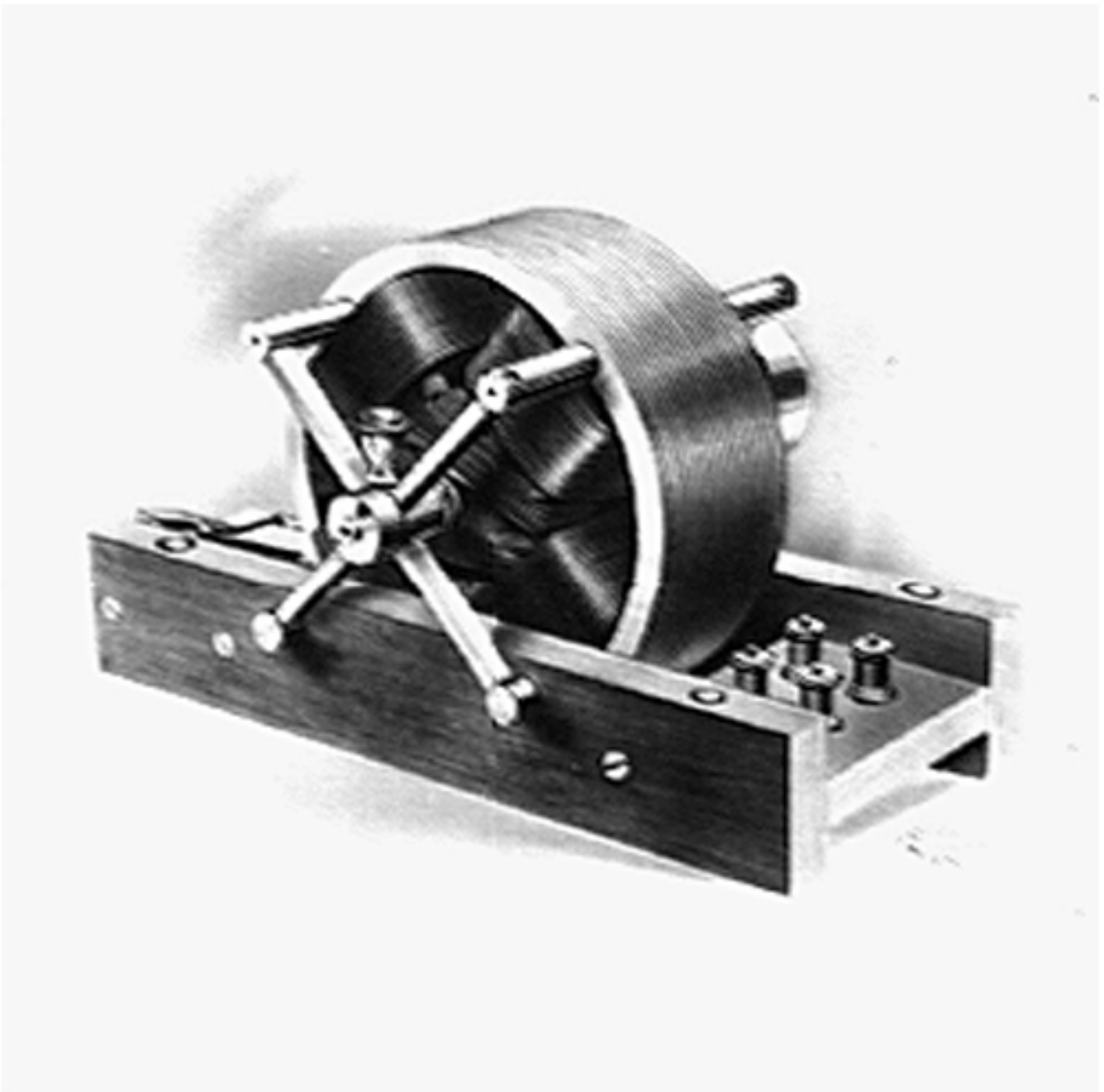


Three rotors used with the early induction motor shown below

When I was a boy of seven or eight I read a novel entitled "Abafi" — The Son of Aba — a Servian translation from the Hungarian of Josika, a writer of renown. The lessons it teaches are much like those of "Ben-Hur," and in this respect it might be viewed as anticipatory of the work of Wallace. The possibilities of will-power and self-control appealed tremendously to my vivid imagination, and I began to discipline myself. Had I a sweet cake or a juicy apple which I was dying to eat I would give it to another boy and go through the tortures of Tantalus, pained but satisfied. Had I some difficult task before me which was exhausting I would attack it again and again until it was done. So I practised day by day from morning till night. At first it called for a vigorous mental effort directed against disposition and desire, but as years went by the conflict lessened and finally my will and wish became identical. They are so to-day, and in this lies the secret of whatever success I have achieved. These experiences are as intimately linked with my discovery of the rotating magnetic field as if they formed an essential part of it; but for them I would never have invented the induction motor.

In the first year of my studies at the Joanneum I rose regularly at three o'clock in the morning and worked till eleven at night; no Sundays or holidays excepted. My success was unusual and excited the interest of the professors. Among these was Dr. Allé, who lectured on differential equations and other branches of higher mathematics and whose addresses were unforgetable intellectual treats, and Prof. Poeschl, who held the chair of Physics, theoretical and experimental. These men I always remember with a sense of gratitude. Prof. Poeschl was peculiar; it was said of him that he wore the same coat for twenty years. But what he lacked in personal

magnetism he made up in the perfection of his exposition. I never saw him miss a word or gesture, and his demonstrations and experiments always went off with clocklike precision. Some time in the winter of 1878 a new apparatus was installed in the lecture room. It was a dynamo with a laminated permanent magnet and a Gramme armature. Prof. Poeschl had wound some wire around the field to show the principle of self-excitation, and provided a battery for running the machine as a motor. As he was illustrating this latter feature there was lively sparking at the commutator and



One of the earliest of induction motors. Although it weighed only a little over 20 pounds, it developed ¼ horse-power at a speed of 1,800 revolutions, a performance considered remarkable at the time.

brushes, and I ventured to remark that these devices might be eliminated. He said that it was quite impossible and likened my proposal to a perpetual motion scheme, which amused my fellow students and embarrassed me greatly. For a time I hesitated, impressed by his authority, but my conviction grew stronger and I decided to work out the solution. At that time my resolve meant more to me than the most solemn vow.

I undertook the task with all the fire and boundless confidence of youth. To my mind it was simply a test of will-power. I knew nothing of the technical difficulties. All my remaining term in Gratz was passed in intense but fruitless effort, and I almost convinced myself that the problem was unsolvable. Indeed, I thought, was it possible to transform the steady pull of gravitation into a whirling force? The answer was an emphatic no. And was this not also true of magnetic attraction? The two propositions appeared very much the same.

In 1880 I went to Prague, Bohemia, carrying out my father's wish to complete my school education at a university. The atmosphere of that old and interesting city was favorable to invention. Hungry artists were plentiful and intelligent company could be found everywhere. Here I made the first distinct step in advance, by detaching the commutators from the machines and placing them on distant arbors. Every day I imagined arrangements on this plan without result, but feeling that I was nearing the solution. In the following year there was a sudden change in my views of life. I realized that my parents were making too great sacrifices for me and resolved to relieve them of the burden. The American telephone wave had reached the European continent, and the system was to be installed in Budapest. It appeared an ideal opportunity, and I took the train for that city. By an irony of fate my first employment was as a draughtsman. I hated drawing; it was for me the very worst of annoyances. Fortunately it was not long before I secured the position I sought, that of chief electrician to the telephone company. My duties brought me in contact with a number of young men in whom I became interested. One of these was Mr. Szigety, who was a remarkable specimen of humanity. A big head with an awful lump on one side and a sallow complexion made him distinctly ugly, but from the neck down his body might have served for a statue of Apollo. His strength was phenomenal. At that time I had exhausted myself through hard work and incessant thinking. He impressed me with the necessity of systematic physical development, and I accepted his offer to train me in athletics. We exercised every day and I gained rapidly in strength. My mind also seemed to grow more vigorous and as my thoughts turned to the subject which absorbed me I was surprised at my confidence of success. On one occasion, ever present in my recollection, we were enjoying ourselves in the Varos-liget or City Park. I was reciting poetry, of which I was passionately fond. At that age I knew entire books by heart and could read them from memory word by word. One of these was Faust. It was late in the afternoon, the sun was setting, and I was reminded of the passage:

"Sie rückt und weicht, der Tag ist überlebt,
Dort eilt sie hin und fördert neues Leben,
Oh, dass kein Flügel mich vom Boden hebt
Ihr nach und immer nach zu streben!

Ach, zu des Geistes Flügeln wird so leicht
Kein körperlicher Flügel sich gesellen!"

As I spoke the last words, plunged in thought and marveling at the power of the poet, the idea came like a lightning flash. In an instant I saw it all, and I drew with a stick on the sand the diagrams which were illustrated in my fundamental patents of May, 1888, and which Szigety understood perfectly.

It is extremely difficult for me to put this experience before the reader in its true light and significance for it is so altogether extraordinary. When an idea presents itself it is, as a rule, crude and imperfect. Birth, growth and development are phases normal and natural. It was different with my invention. In the very moment I became conscious of it. I saw it fully developed and perfected. Then again, a theory, however plausible, must usually be confirmed by experiment. Not so the one I had formulated. It was being daily demonstrated every dynamo and motor was absolute proof of its soundness. The effect on me was indescribable. My imaginings were equivalent to realities. I had carried out what I had undertaken and pictured myself achieving wealth and fame. But more than all this was to me the revelation that I was an inventor. This was the one thing I wanted to be. Archimedes was my ideal. I admired the works of artists, but to my mind, they were only shadows and semblances. The inventor, I thought, gives to the world creations which are palpable, which live and work.

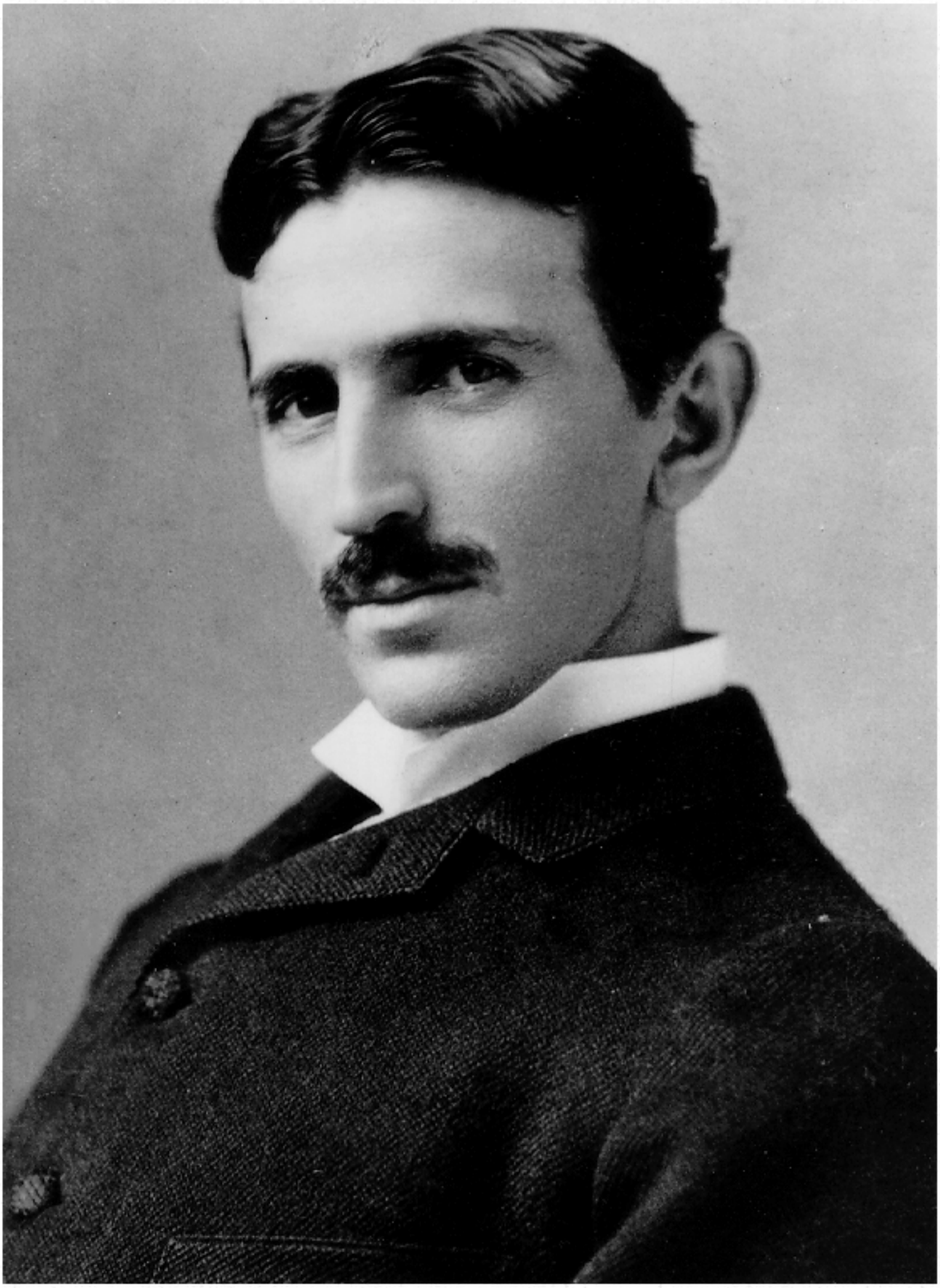
The telephone installation was now completed and in the spring of 1882 an offer was made me to go to Paris, which I accepted eagerly. Here I met a number of

Americans whom I befriended and to whom I talked of my invention, and one of them, Mr. D. Cunningham, proposed to form a company for exploitation. This might have been done had not my duties called me to Strasburg, Alsace. It was in this city that I constructed my first motor. I had brought some material from Paris, and a disk of iron with bearings was made for me in a mechanical shop close to the railroad station in which I was installing the light and power plant. It was a crude apparatus, but afforded me the supreme satisfaction of seeing for the first time, rotation affected by alternating currents without commutator. I repeated the experiment with my assistant twice in the summer of 1883. My intercourse with Americans had directed my attention to the practical introduction and I endeavored to secure capital, but was unsuccessful in this attempt and returned to Paris early in 1884. Here, too, I made several ineffectual efforts, and finally resolved to go to America, where I arrived in the summer of 1884. By a previous understanding I entered the Edison Machine Works, where I undertook the design of dynamos and motors. For nine months my regular hours were from 10:30 A. M. till 5 A. M. the next day. All this time I was getting more and more anxious about the invention and was making up my mind to place it before Edison. I still remember an odd incident in this connection. One day in the latter part of 1884 Mr. Bachelor, the manager of the works, took me to Coney Island, where we met Edison in company with his former wife. The moment that I was waiting for was propitious, and I was just about to speak, when a horrible looking tramp took hold of Edison and drew him away, preventing me from carrying out my intention. Early in 1885 people approached me with a proposition to develop an arc light system and to form a company under my name. I signed the contract, and a year and a half later I was free and in a position to devote myself to the practical development of my discovery. I found financial support, and in April, 1887, a company was organized for the purpose, and what has followed since is well known.

A few words should be said in regard to the various claims for anticipation which were made upon the issuance of my patents in 1888, and in numerous suits conducted subsequently. There were three contestants for the honor, Ferraris, Schallenberger and Cabanellas. All three succumbed to grief. The opponents of my patents advanced the Ferraris claim very strongly, but any one who will peruse his little Italian pamphlet, which appeared in the spring of 1888, and compare it with the patent record filed by me seven months before, and with my paper before the American Institute of Electrical Engineers, will have no difficulty in reaching a conclusion. Irrespective of being behind me in time, Prof. Ferraris's publication concerned only my split-phase motor, and in an application for a patent by him priority was awarded to me. He never suggested any of the essential practical features which constitute my system, and in regard to the split-phase motor he was very decided in his opinion that it was of no value. Both Ferraris and Schallenberger discovered the rotation accidentally while working with a Gaullard and Gibbs transformer, and had difficulty in explaining the actions. Neither of them produced a rotating field motor like mine, nor were their theories the same as my own. As to Cabanellas, the only reason for his claim is an abandoned and defective technical document. Some over-zealous friends have interpreted a United States patent granted to Bradley as a contemporary record, but there is no foundation whatever for such a claim. The original application only described a generator with two circuits which were provided for the sole purpose of increasing the output. There was not much novelty in the idea, since a number of such machines existed at that time. To say that these machines were anticipations of my rotary transformer is wholly unjustified. They might have served as one of the elements in my system of transformation, but were nothing more than dynamos with two circuits constructed with other ends in view and in utter ignorance of the new and wonderful phenomena revealed through my discovery.

PHOTOGRAPHS

Nikola Tesla at the age of 23

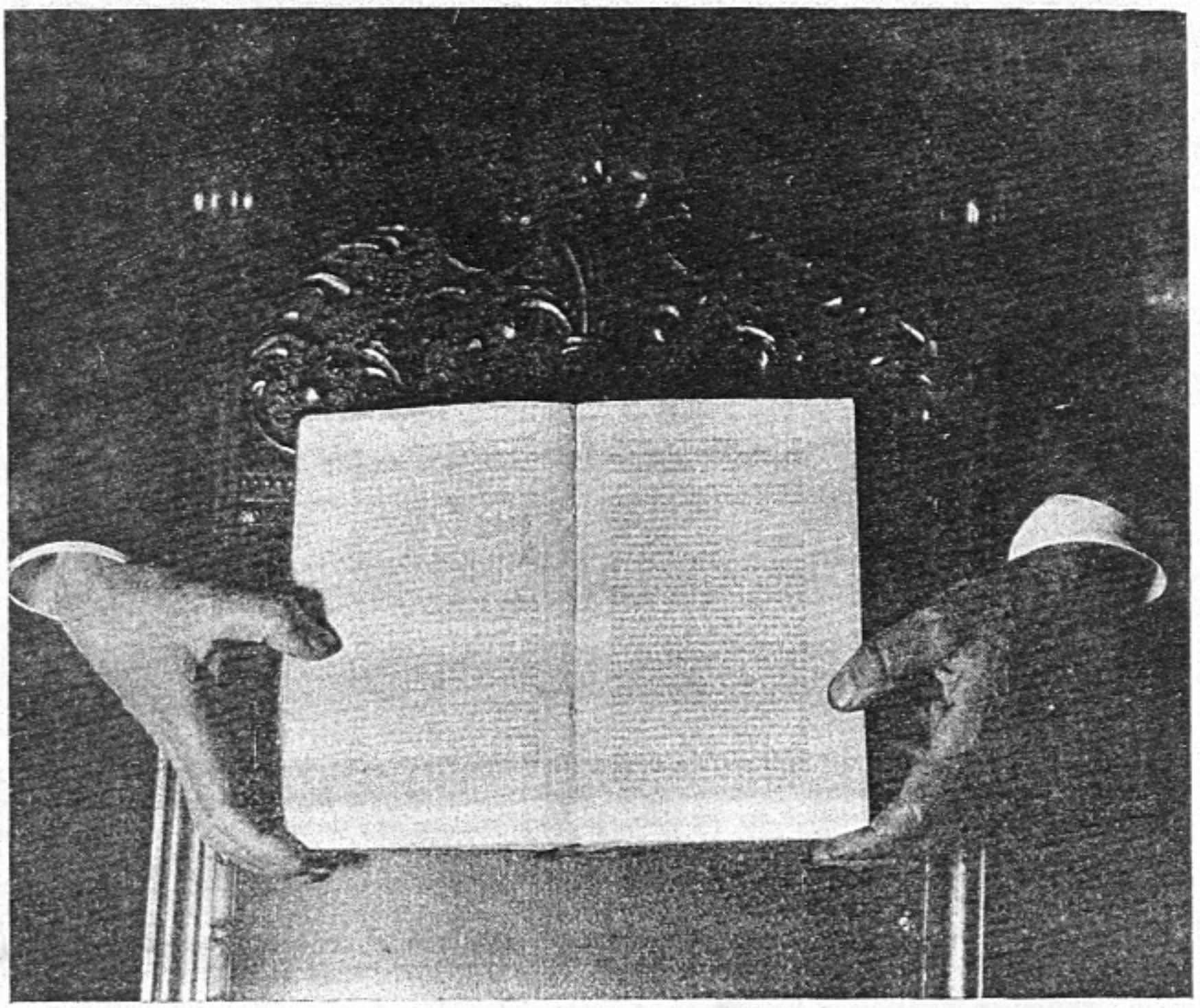


Nikola Tesla at the age of 39

Nikola Tesla in his working room

Nikola Tesla in his laboratory

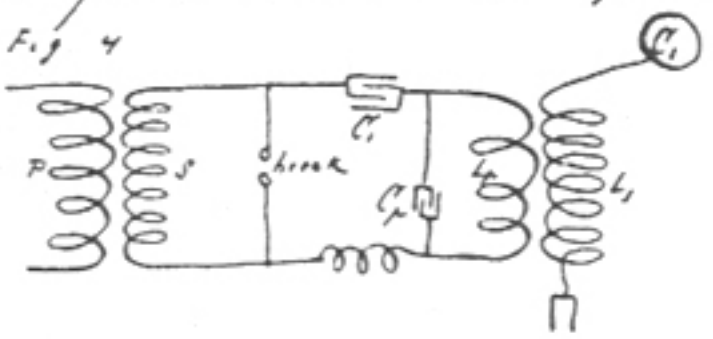
Nikola Tesla with his "artificial daylight"



Tesla's "artificial daylight" was used in taking this photograph of Tesla's hands

relation between C_1 and self-induction in the circuit so that they
by current each other at that frequency Fig. 4 - another
modification shows the system with self-induction L_1 a circuit

Fig 4



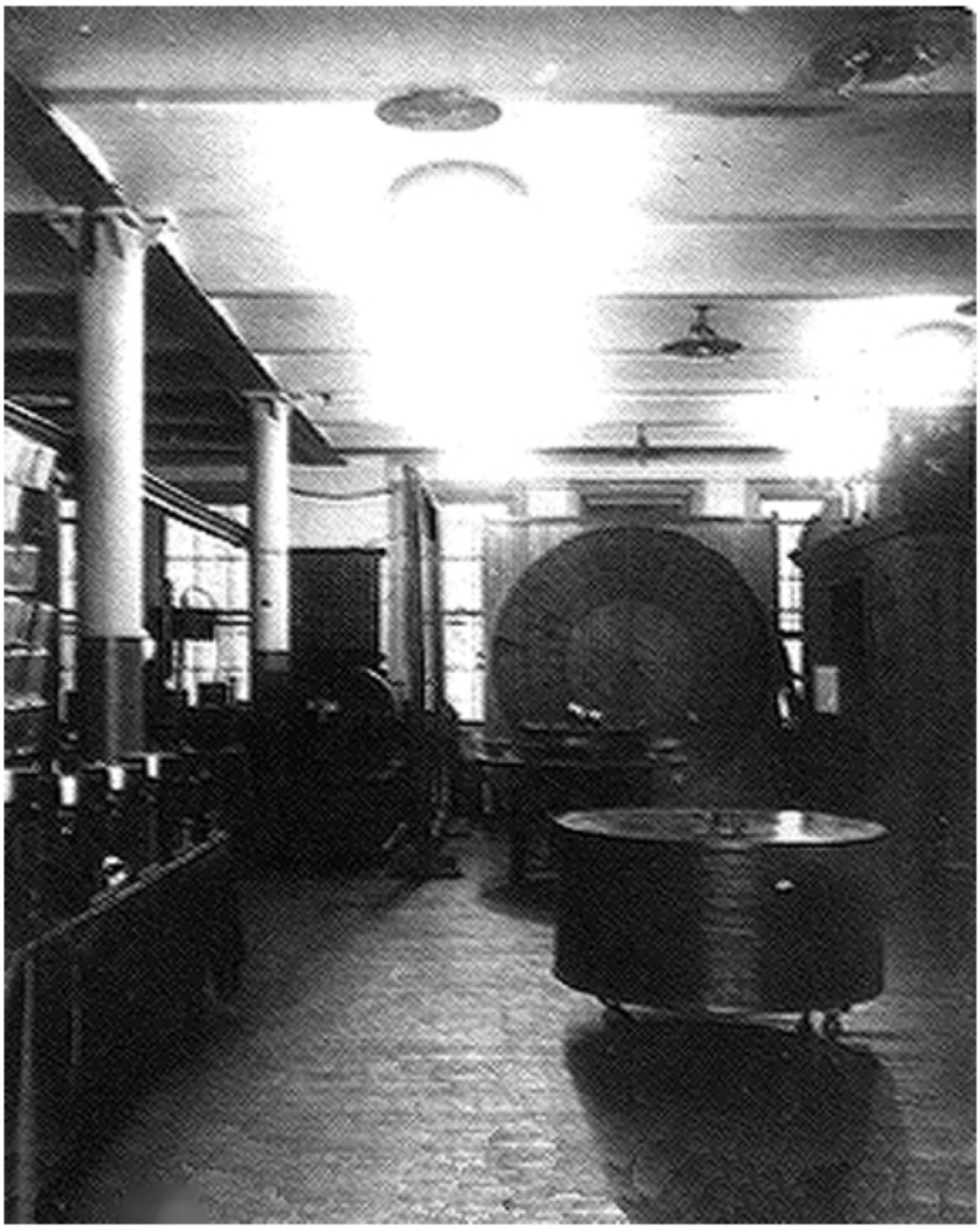
To satisfy above conditions
we must have
$C_1 = \frac{L_1}{R_1^2 + p^2 L_1^2}$ R_1 being the
resistance including the arc

Since in most cases, even when the arc included R_1 will
be negligible against pL_1 we have again $C_1 = \frac{1}{p^2 L_1}$

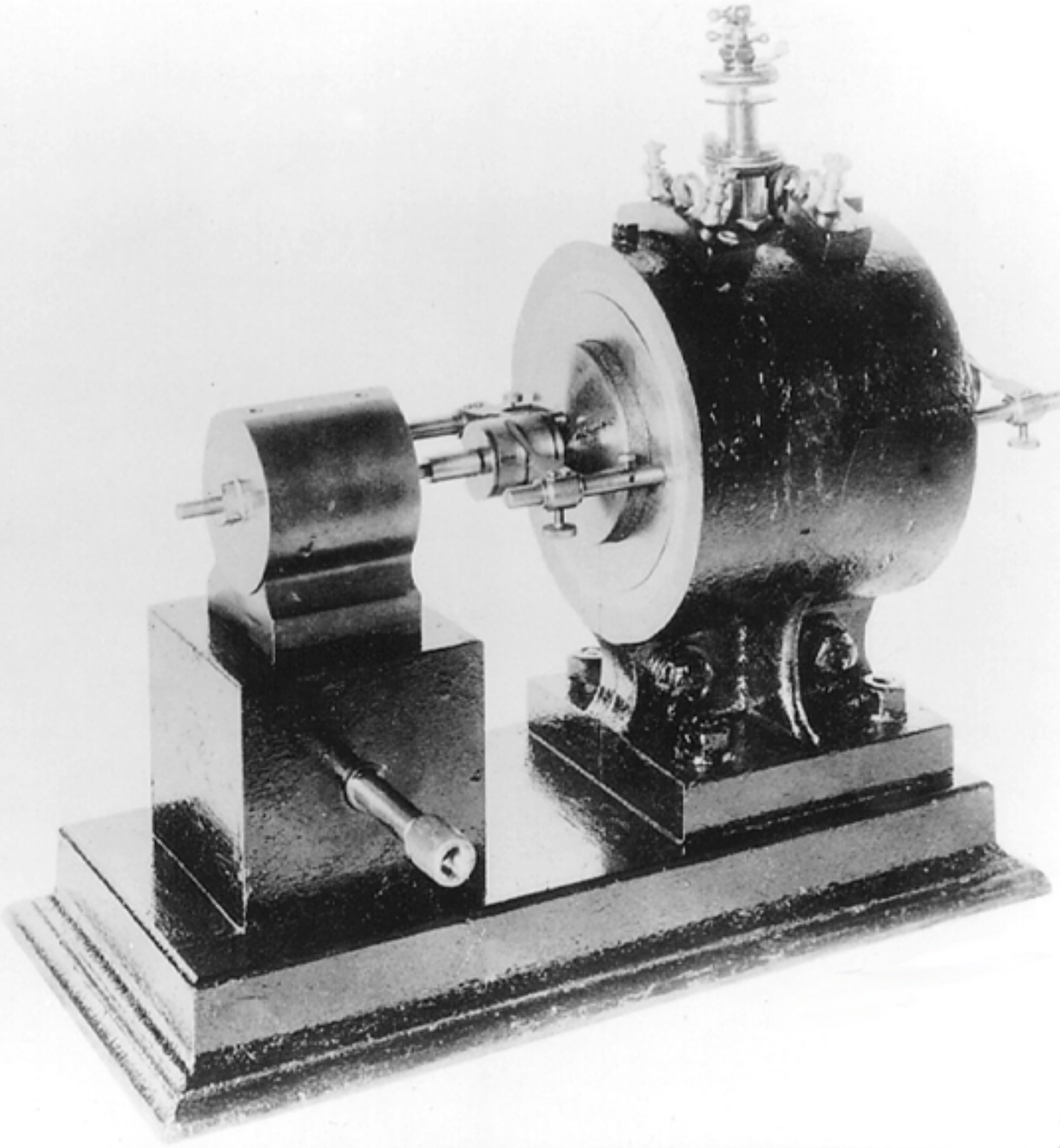
From all the above considerations we get a general
relation between the constants of all the three circuits
which is expressed by $\frac{1}{C_1 L_1} = \frac{1}{C_\mu L_\mu} = \frac{1}{C_1 L_1}$ II

or $C_1 L_1 = C_\mu L_\mu = C_1 L_1$

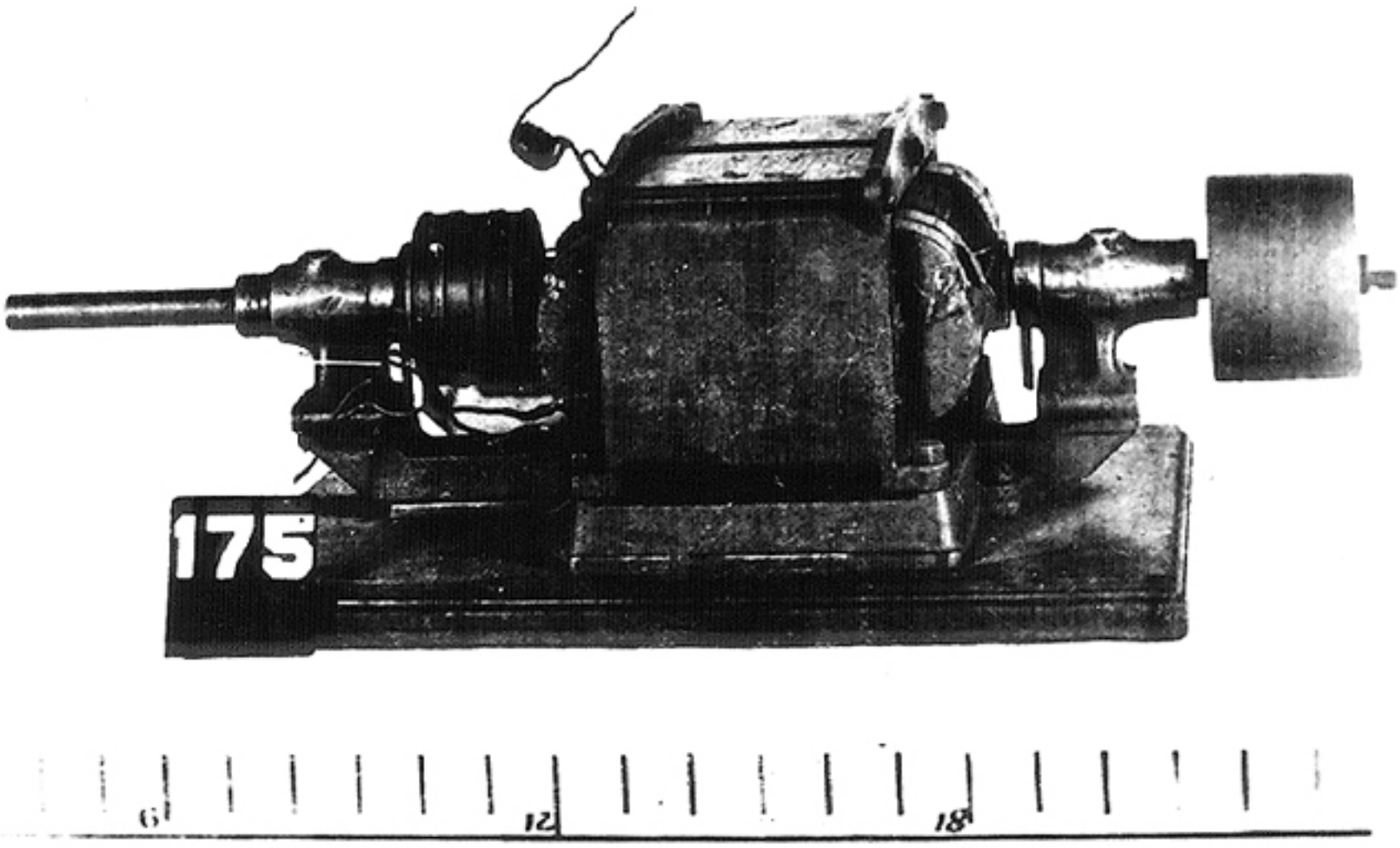
One page of Tesla's notebook from Colorado Springs



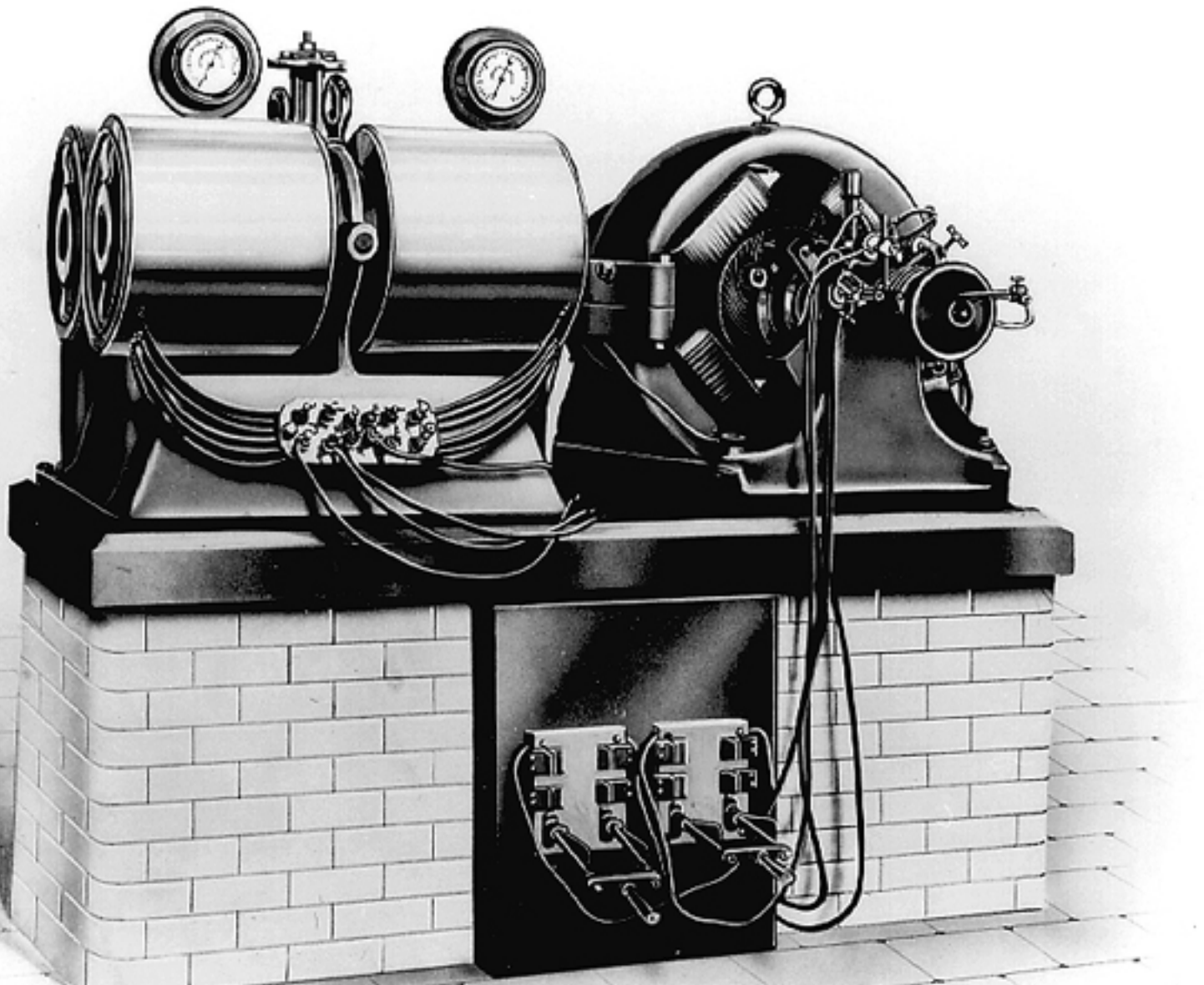
Tesla's laboratory lighted by Tesla's "artificial daylight"



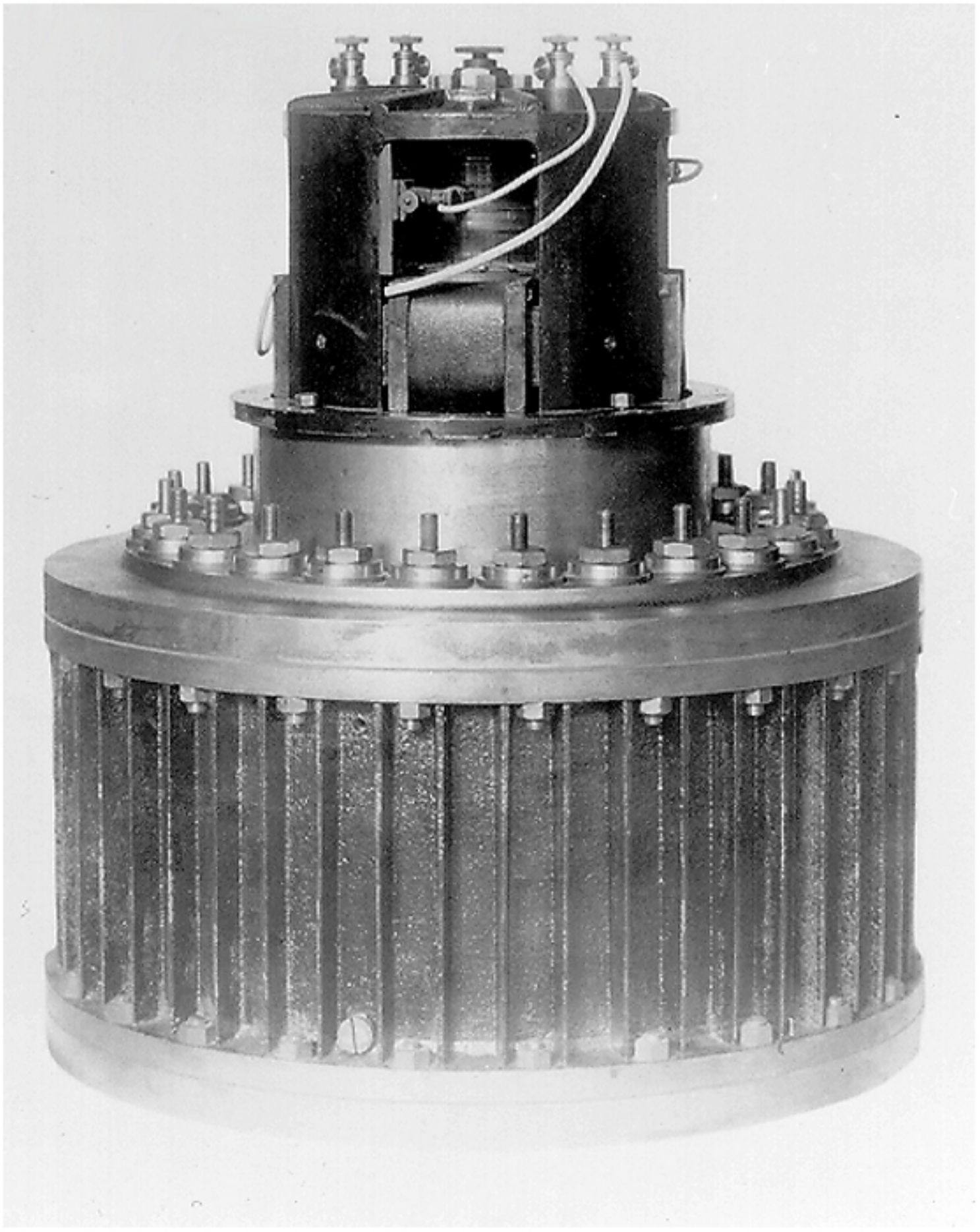
Small dynamo-electric oscillator for scientific uses



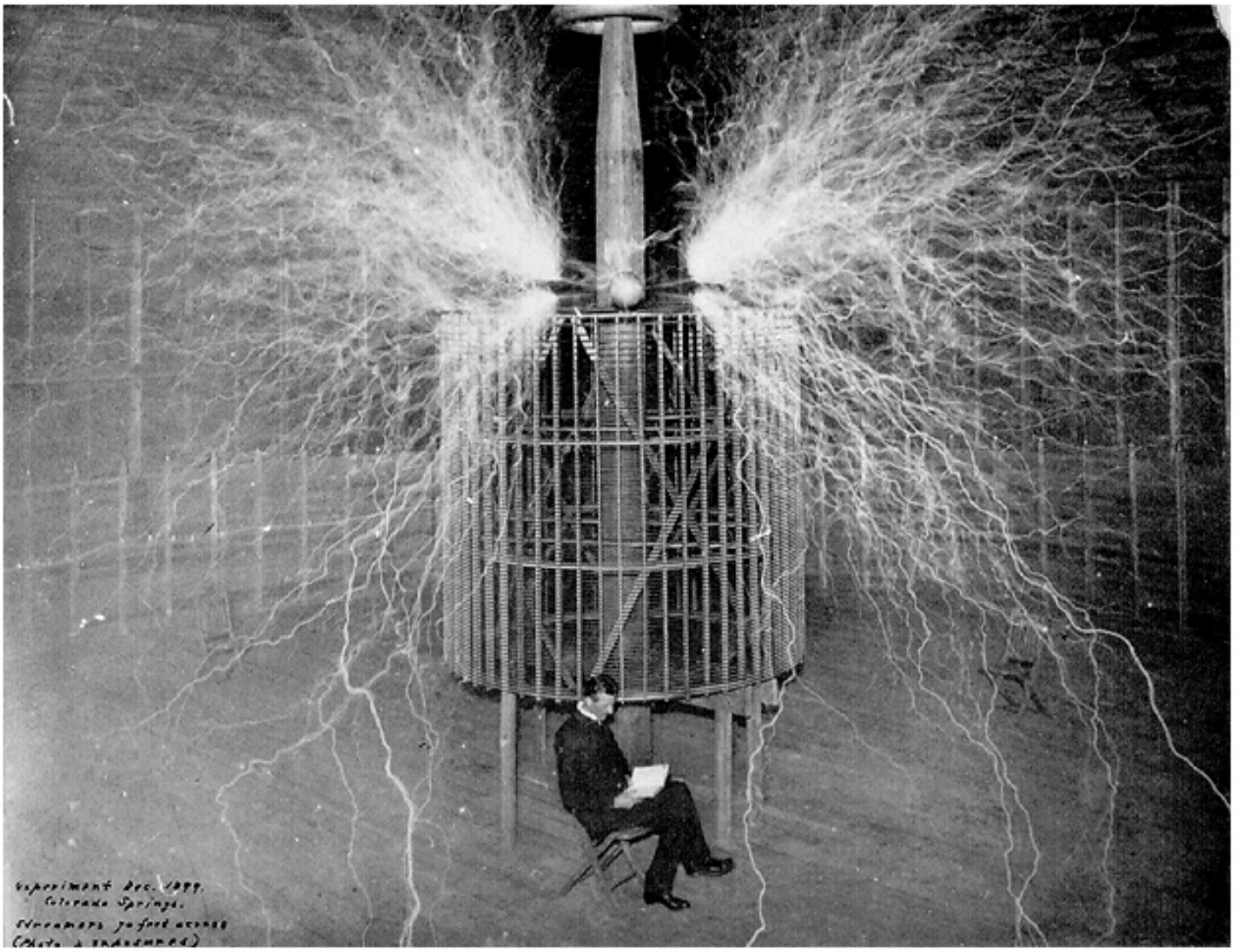
Early laboratory model of Tesla motor with round rotor and slip rings



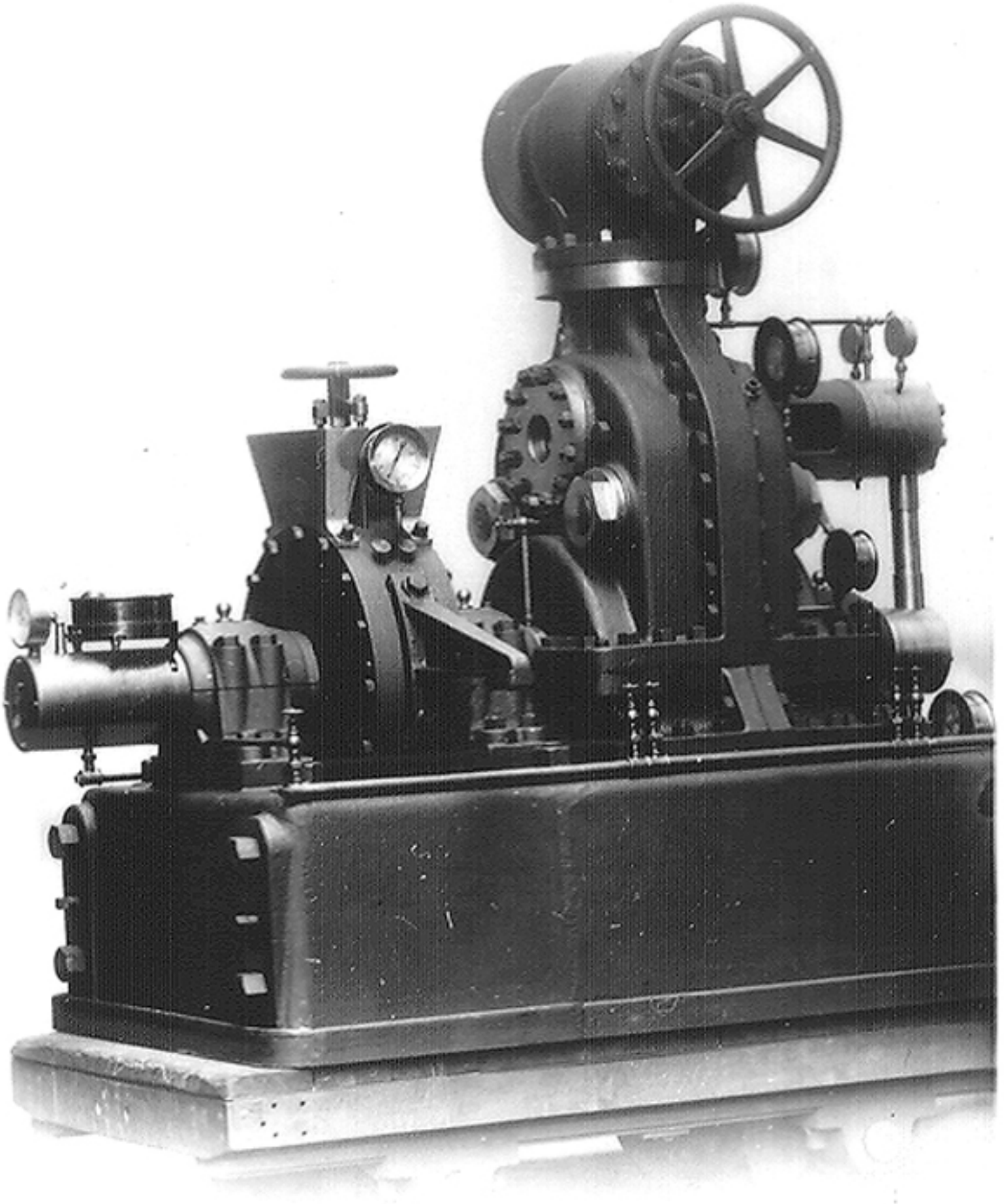
Large dynamo-electric oscillator



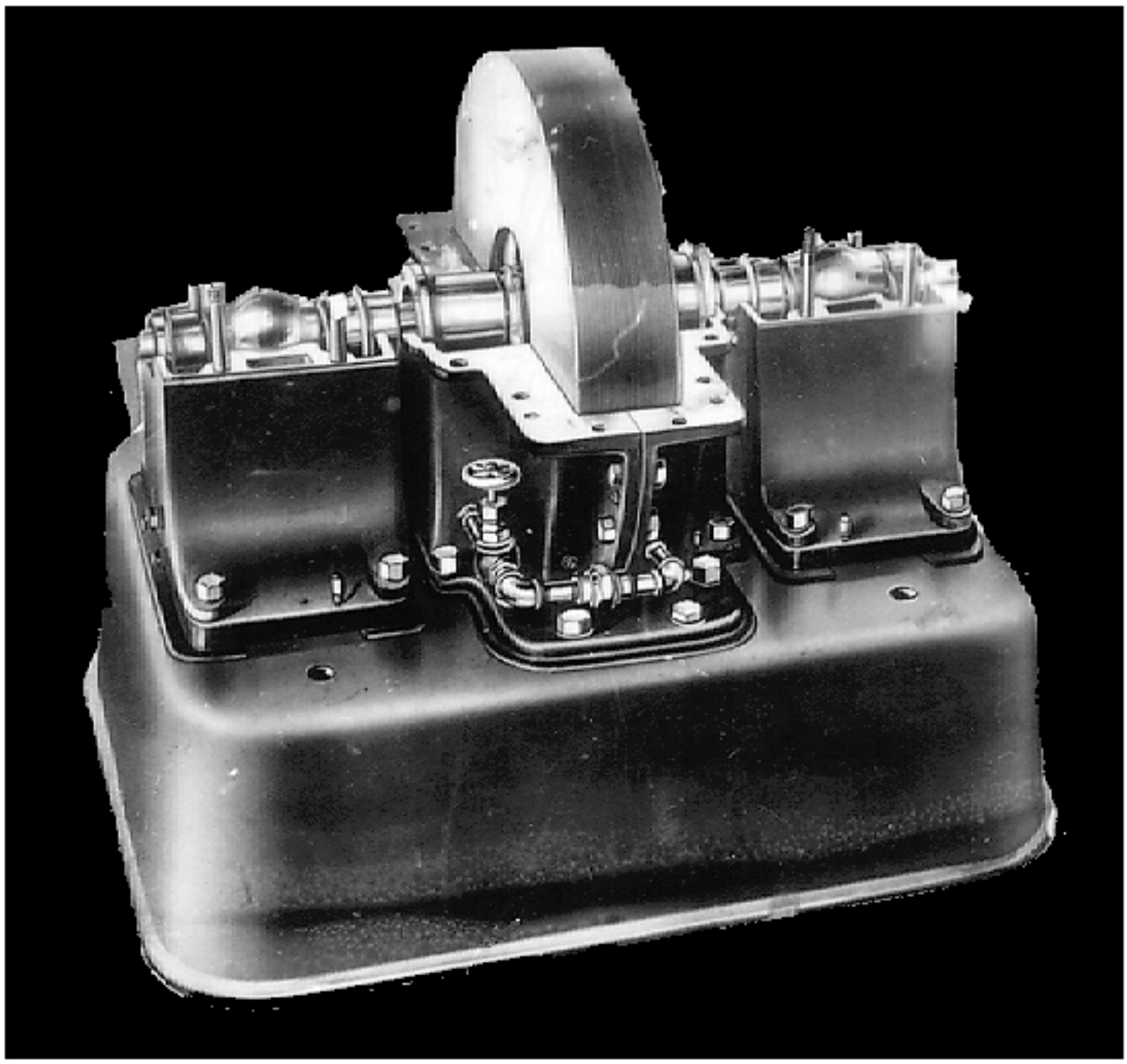
Very fast mercury interrupter for industrial uses



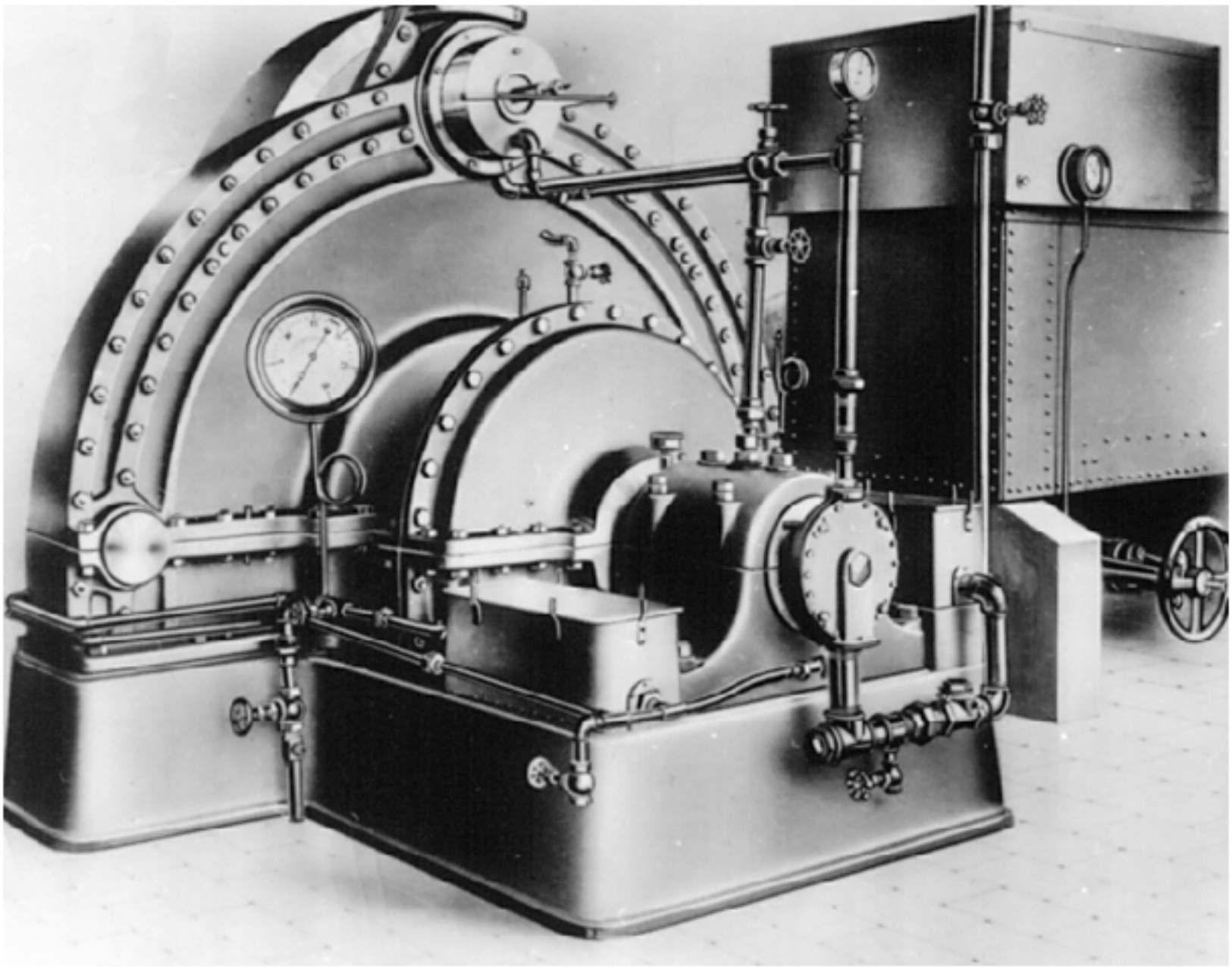
In his laboratory at Colorado Springs Tesla produced extremely high voltages up to. 12000000 volts (at a frequency of several hundred thousand cycles per second)



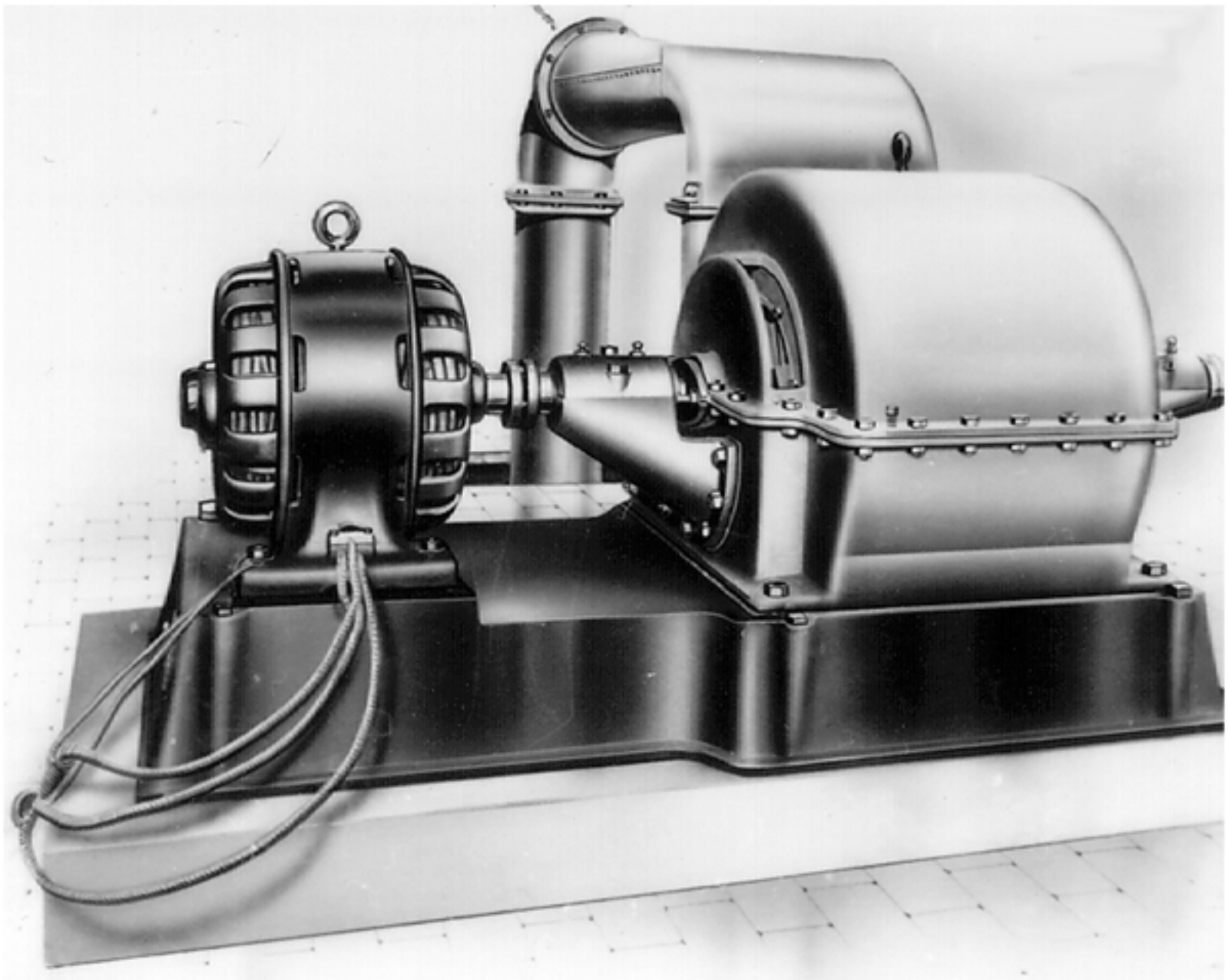
Tesla's 10000 HP steam turbine



Lower part with rotor of Tesla's steam turbine



Tesla's turbo-pump



Tesla's blower and three-phase motor

NIKOLA TESLA

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